THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

APRIL, 1799.

A Voyage to the South Atlantic and round Cape Horn into the Pacific Ocean, for the Purpose of extending the Spermaceti Whale Fisheries, and other Objects of Commerce, by ascertaining the Ports, Bays, Harbours, and Anchoring Births, in certain Islands and Coasts in those Seas at which the Ships of the British Merchants might be refitted. Undertaken and performed by Captain James Colnett, of the Royal Navy, in the Ship Rattler. 4to. 1*l.* 5*s.* *Boards.* White. 1798.

THE merits and the misfortunes of captain Colnett equally interest us. He was the companion of captain Cook; and, if the voyage of Vancouver may be considered as a supplement to those of Cook, the present volume is a proper appendage to those which we last reviewed in the line of discovery. We are sorry, however, that the whole of the western coast of America has not been examined with the minute accuracy which was employed in the higher and middle latitudes. Below Brewer's island, in lat. 41° south, there is an extensive archipelago; and the coast to the southward is broken into numerous islands little known, in the examination of which the activity of captain Colnett, or the persevering industry of Mr. Whidbey, might be usefully employed, if Spanish jealousy would permit.

The great object of this voyage, in addition to its commercial views, was to examine those islands of the Pacific Ocean, in the lower latitudes or the southern hemisphere, which might be useful for the South-Sea whale-fishers, either for the purpose of reparation or of refreshment. In the introduction, captain Colnett gives a short account of his professional life, and of the circumstances which led to the present voyage; and we find, from his experience, additional reasons for establishing settlements to the east of China, on some of the independent islands which are numerous in that part of the world.

Our author sailed in the beginning of January, 1793; but,

for ſome time, we find nothing to detain us. At length he paſſed the coaſt of Braſil in ſearch of l'Iſle Grande, ſaid to have been diſcovered, in 1675, by Ant. la Roche, a native of England. La Péroufe denied the exiſtence of this iſland, for his uſual reaſon, that *he* could not find it; and, indeed, captain Colnett was not more fortunate; yet, from the numerous marks of land from lat. 43° to 44° ſouth, long. 33° 53′ weſt, there is reaſon to think that ſome iſland exiſts, eſpecially as La Roche's other accounts of land have been confirmed. From the number of whales, ſeen in this part, our author thinks that ſuch an iſland would afford a ſpot for a valuable ſettlement.

The following account of a ſtorm which occurred early in the voyage, contains ſome remarkable obſervations.

'The autumnal equinoctial gale came on us the twenty-third of March, and held upwards of four days, with frequent claps of thunder, accompanied by lightening, hail and rain. It blew as hard as I ever remember, and, for ſeveral hours, we could not venture to ſhew any ſail. At the ſame time a whirlwind or typhoon aroſe to windward, from whence in one of the ſqualls, two balls of fire, about the ſize of cricket balls, fell on board. One of them ſtruck the anchor which was houſed on the fore-caſtle, and burſting into particles, ſtruck the chief mate and one of the ſeamen, who fell down in excruciating tortures. On examining them ſeveral holes appeared to have been burned in their cloaths which were of flannel: and in various parts of their bodies there were ſmall wounds, as if made with an hot iron of the ſize of a ſixpenny piece. I immediately ordered ſome of the crew to perform the operation of the Otaheiteans, called Roro mee, which cauſed a conſiderable abatement of their pains, but ſeveral days elapſed before they were perfectly recovered. The other ball ſtruck the funnel of the cabooſe, made an exploſion equal to that of a ſwivel gun, and burned ſeveral holes in the mizen-ſtay-ſail and main-ſail which were handed. At the height of it the barometer was 28°. The alarm which we may be ſuppoſed to have experienced during the whirlwind, was not allayed by the noiſe of the birds, who, not conſidering the ſhip to be a place of ſafety, as is the caſe in common gales, appeared, by the violence of their ſhrieks and the irregularity of their flight, to be ſenſible of the danger: for as the ſquall approached them numbers plunged into the ſea, to avoid it; while thoſe who could not eſcape its influence, were whirled in a ſpiral manner out of ſight in an inſtant. It very fortunately reached us only within two cables length of each beam, and ſo paſſed a-head of the ſhip to the north. From our firſt ſeeing, to our loſing ſight of it, was about half an hour. In this gale, I loſt the greateſt part of my live ſtock, together with all the vegetables that hung at the ſtern of the ſhip.' P. 14.

The directions for doubling Cape Horn are very useful. The captain is of opinion that a settlement on Staten Island, or in its neighbourhood, would be beneficial in many respects.

After doubling Cape Horn, he visited Wager Island; and he describes the entrance to its bay more correctly than any former navigator. An observation of Mr. Falkner, who, though an Englishman, was seduced by the jesuits and resided many years in South-America as a brother of the order, deserves attention. He declares, as his decided opinion, that it would prove very disadvantageous to the Spaniards, if the English were to form any settlement to the south of Brasil, there being several rivers which communicate with the western side of America; and he gives a particular description of the bay of St. Fondo, and the river Colorado. It may here be observed, that, on the disturbance at Nootka, the Spaniards colonised many new spots, and formed an extensive plan of colonisation, within which even the Sandwich islands were included.

Mocha island is in lat. 38° 24′ and long. 75°. It abounded, when visited by Mr. Wafer, with provisions of every kind; but these were destroyed by the Spaniards to prevent its being an asylum for the buccaneers. Of the sheep of this island, four feet and a half high, which, Mr. Wafer informs us, will carry burthens, and may be used for riding, a description is given in a note.

The islands of St. Felix and St. Ambrose afford no refreshments and contain no harbours. They are surrounded by dangerous reefs; yet our author thinks that the latter might be useful as a rendezvous in war or peace. It, however, wants wood, water, and vegetables. These islands are in lat. 26° 13′ and 19′, long. 79° 26′ and 4′ respectively.

Of the Gallipago islands, captain Colnett saw only, in this part of his voyage, the two easternmost, which he called the isles of Chatham and Hood. The climate, though under the equator, is most delightful; and wood, vegetables, and turtles, are numerous.—The following observations are worthy of notice.

'I was very much perplexed, to form a satisfactory conjecture, how the small birds, which appeared to remain in one spot, supported themselves without water; but the party on their return informed me, that, having exhausted all their water, and reposing beneath a prickly pear-tree, almost choaked with thirst, they observed an old bird in the act of supplying three young ones with drink, by squeezing the berry of a tree into their mouths. It was about the size of a pea, and contained a watery juice, of an acid, but not unpleasant, taste. The bark of the tree, produces a con-

ſiderable quantity of moiſture, and, on being eaten, allays the thirſt. In dry ſeaſons, the land tortoiſe is ſeen to gnaw and ſuck it. The leaf of this tree, is like that of the bay tree, the fruit grows like cherries, whilſt the juice of the bark dies the fleſh a deep purple, and emits a grateful odor: a quality in common with the greater part of the trees and plants in this iſland; though it is ſoon loſt, when the branches are ſeparated from the trunks, or ſtems. The leaves of theſe trees alſo abſorb the copious dews, which fall during the night, but in larger quantities at the full and change of the moon; the birds then pierce them with their bills, for the moiſture they retain, and which, I believe, they alſo procure from the various plants and ever-greens. But when the dews fail in the ſummer ſeaſon, thouſands of theſe creatures periſh; for, on our return hither, we found great numbers dead in their neſts, and ſome of them almoſt fledged. It may, however, be remarked, that this curious inſtinctive mode, of finding a ſubſtitute for water, is not peculiar, to the birds of this iſland; as nature has provided them with a ſimilar reſource in the fountain tree, that flouriſhes on the Iſle Ferro, one of the Canaries; and ſeveral other trees and canes, which, Churchill tells us in his voyages, are to be found, on the mountains of the Phillipine [*Philippine*] Iſlands.

'There is no tree, in this iſland, which meaſures more than twelve inches in circumference, except the prickly pear, ſome of which were three feet in the girth, and fifty feet in height. The torch thiſtle, which was the next in height, contains a liquid in its heart, which the birds drank, when it was cut down. They ſometimes, even extracted it from the young trees, by piercing the trunks with their bills.' P. 53.

When our navigator (in May 1794) returned to the Gallipagos, he examined many of the iſlands of that groupe; and he found a convenient bay to the north-weſt of Lord Chatham's Iſle, where various refreſhments were found. Thence he proceeded to the ſouth and the weſt, till he reached the extremity of the groupe. The iſlands on the weſt, and indeed many of the others, appear to be volcanic; and, though deep bays ſeem to afford ſhelter, there are few convenient anchorages or harbours. On the north-weſt, the ſpermaceti whales are very numerous; but, from the force of the currents, the fiſhery is not ſo advantageous as it would otherwiſe be, ſince the ſhip drifts far to the weſtward, during the operation of cutting up the whale. From the north, captain Colnett viſited one of the internal iſles, and anchored in a commodious bay at James Iſland. This was a favourite ſpot of the buccaneers; and the remains of their occaſional reſidence are ſtill viſible. It is a place well adapted for a ſettlement.—From this part of the volume, we will gratify our readers with an extract.

'We did not land on either of them' (Albemarle or James's

Iſland). 'In this expedition we ſaw great numbers of penguins, and three or four hundred ſeals. There were alſo ſmall birds, with a red breaſt, ſuch as I have ſeen at the New Hebrides; and others reſembling the Java ſparrow, in ſhape and ſize, but of a black plumage; the male was the darkeſt, and had a very delightful note. At every place where we landed on the Weſtern ſide, we might have walked for miles, through long graſs and beneath groves of trees. It only wanted a ſtream to compoſe a very charming landſcape. This iſle appears to have been a favourite reſort of the Buccaneers, as we not only found ſeats, which had been made by them of earth and ſtone, but a conſiderable number of broken jars ſcattered about, and ſome entirely whole, in which the Peruvian wine and liquors of that country are preſerved. We alſo found ſome old daggers, nails and other implements. This place is, in every reſpect, calculated for refreſhment or relief for crews after a long and tedious voyage, as it abounds with wood, and good anchorage, for any number of ſhips, and ſheltered from all winds by Albemarle Iſle. The watering-place of the Buccaneers was entirely dried up, and there was only found a ſmall rivulet between two hills running into the ſea; the northernmoſt of the hill forms the ſouth point of Freſh-water bay. Though there is a great plenty of wood, that which is near the ſhore, is not large enough for any purpoſe, but to uſe as fire-wood. In the mountains the trees may be of a larger ſize, as they grow to the ſummit of them. I do not think that the watering-place which we ſaw, is the only one on the iſland; and I have no doubt, if wells were dug any where beneath the hills, that it would be found in great plenty: they muſt be made, however, at ſome diſtance from the ſandy beach, as within a few yards behind them, is a large lagoon of ſalt water, from three to eight feet in depth, which riſes and falls with the tide; and in a few hours a channel might be cut into it. The woods abound with tortoiſes, doves, and guanas, and the lagoons with teal. The earth produces wild mint, ſorrel, and a plant reſembling the cloth-tree of Otaheite and the Sandwich Iſles, whoſe leaves are an excellent ſubſtitute for the China tea, and was indeed preferred to it by my people as well as myſelf. There are many other kinds of trees, particularly the moli-tree, mentioned by Mr. Falkner, and the algarrooa, but that which abounds, in a ſuperior degree, is the cotton tree. There is great plenty of every kind of fiſh that inhabit the tropical latitudes; mullet, devil-fiſh, and green turtle were in great abundance. But all the luxuries of the ſea, yielded to that which the iſland afforded us in the land tortoiſe, which in whatever way it was dreſſed, was conſidered by all of us as the moſt delicious food we had ever taſted. The fat of theſe animals when melted down, was equal to freſh butter; thoſe which weighed from thirty to forty pounds, were the beſt, and yielded two quarts of fat: ſome of the largeſt, when ſtanding on their feet, meaſured near a yard from the lower part of the neck. As they

advance in age their ſhell becomes proportionably thin, and I have ſeen them in ſuch a ſtate, that a pebble would ſhatter them. I ſalted ſeveral of the middle ſize, with ſome of the eggs, which are quite round, and as big as thoſe of a gooſe, and brought them to England. The moſt extraordinary animal in this iſland is the ſea guana, which, indeed abounds in all theſe iſles. We did not ſee the land guana in any of the iſles but James's, and it differs from that which I have ſeen on the coaſt of Guinea, in having a kind of comb on the back of its neck.' P. 156.

We find little to add to captain Vancouver's account of Cocos Iſland. The advantages are indeed placed in a more luxuriant point of view; but it appears that numerous fiſh are prevented from catching at the bait by the ſharks, which, round this iſland, are particularly bold; and the land is infeſted by flies and rats.

The next groupe of iſlands, which captain Colnett examined, are nearly oppoſite the entrance of the gulph of California. He has denominated them, from the viceroy of Mexico, the Rivella Gigeda Iſlands. Socoro, the only one which he viſited, is, he thinks, an excellent place of reſort for a ſcorbutic crew, or for refitting a veſſel of war cruizing againſt the Spaniards, or a whaler. On the ſouth-weſt of Socoro, there is a convenient bay, but the iſland itſelf is volcanic. In this run, the yellow fever, and the ſcurvy, occurred on board of the Rattler; and we ſhall ſelect our navigator's account of his judicious management in each emergency; for he had no ſurgeon on board.

'On the firſt ſymptoms appearing, the fore-part of the head was immediately ſhaved, and the temples, and pole, waſhed with vinegar and water. The whole body, was then immerſed in warm water, to give a free courſe to perſpiration; ſome opening medicine was afterward adminiſtered, and every four hours, a doſe of ten grains of James's powders. If the patient was thirſty, the drink was weak white wine and water, and a ſlice of bread to ſatisfy an inclination to eat. An increaſing appetite was gratified by a ſmall quantity of ſoup, made from the mucilaginous parts of the turtle, with a little vinegar in it. I alſo gave the ſick, ſweetmeats and other articles from my private ſtock, whenever they expreſſed a diſtant wiſh for any, which I could ſupply them with. By this mode of treatment, the whole crew improved in their health, except the carpenter, who, though a very ſtout, robuſt man, was, at one time, in ſuch a ſtate of delirium, and ſo much reduced, that I gave him over; but he at length recovered.' P. 81.

'We brought plenty of cocoa nuts from Iſles Cocos, and there was never wanting a freſh meal of turtle; for they were in ſuch numbers floating on the ſurface of the water, as to be taken when-

ever they were required. To this food, we may be ſaid to owe the preſervation of our healths, and the crew, in general, grew fat upon it.

'Other voyagers have alledged, that living on turtle, cauſes the flux, ſcurvy and fever; I can firſt account for ſuch a conſequence, by its not being ſufficiently boiled, or cooked in unclean utenſils; and, ſecondly, every man who has experienced a long voyage, is well informed, that a ſudden change of food, and particularly from an ordinary ſea or ſalt diet, to an entirely freſh one, will produce the flux, ſickneſs of ſtomach and other complaints. My method, to prevent ſuch effects, was to allow the crew as much vinegar as they could uſe, and ſuperintend myſelf the preparation of the ſeamen's meal. I uſed to taſte the broth, in order to know if it was properly done, that it contained a ſufficient quantity of pearl barley, and was duly ſeaſoned by boiling with it ſalt beef or pork. I alſo ordered that the proportion of the ſalt meats cooked with the turtle, ſhould be previouſly towed and freſhened, and when the crew were tired of ſoup, I gave them flour to make their turtle-meat into pies, and, at other times, fat pork to chop up with it, and make ſauſages. But in moſt of their meſſes, I took care that ſo powerful an antiſeptic, as ſour crout, ſhould not be forgotten.' P. 82.

Captain Colnett took an opportunity of landing on the iſle of Quibos, near the coaſt of Mexico; but he was in conſtant apprehenſion of a viſit from the Spaniards, by whoſe perfidy and cruelty he had before ſuffered. At Quibos cruiſers may conveniently be refitted, as wood and water are in plenty, and of a good quality. Scarcity of proviſions, and other cauſes, at length urged the captain's return. He ſtopped a ſhort time at St. Helena; and re-appeared in his native country, after an abſence of twenty-two months, during which he had loſt only one man, who was killed by an accident.

This voyage is not ſo intereſting, from the variety of adventure or the importance of the countries viſited, as thoſe of captain Cook or that of Vancouver. Its utility, however, is not inconſiderable; and we ought not to refuſe captain Colnett the merit of being a worthy pupil of our great navigator, able, provident, circumſpect, and ingenious. Perhaps this voyage is printed too ſuperbly; and faſtidious criticiſm may remark too great inattention to correctneſs and elegance of language. But the latter point, being a very common fault, will not detract much from the pleaſure of the general reader; and the former circumſtance may have been proper to render the work a companion to thoſe voyages to which it is a ſupplement.

Biographical Memoirs of the French Revolution. By John Adolphus, F. S. A. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. *Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1799.

ACCOUNTS of the lives of the moſt diſtinguiſhed men in the French revolution would, if written with impartiality, afford many uſeful and important leſſons to mankind; but we live too near the ſcene of action, and have been too much agitated by the dreadful commotions in the neighbouring country, to record at preſent the events of the late revolutionary period with the qualities requiſite in a faithful hiſtorian. The work which we are now ſurveying is a ſtriking inſtance of the truth of our remark. The writer's plan is to

'ſketch the lives of the principal actors in the French revolution, and to trace the influence of individuals in producing events which have filled the world with aſtoniſhment, and for which hiſtorical parallels are ſought in vain. It is alſo no leſs the object of theſe Memoirs to ſhew the nature, ſpirit, and tendency of thoſe principles which contributed to the ſucceſs of ſanguine innovators, who, under a pretence of ameliorating the condition of mankind, meditated the ſubverſion of ſocial order.' Vol. i. P. v.

In executing his plan he ſeems to have been, every inſtant, apprehenſive that we ſhould not be ſufficiently diſguſted at the atrocities committed by moſt of the ſubjects of his memoirs; and, by obtruſive remarks, in extenuating the failings of one ſide, and exaggerating (if it be poſſible to exaggerate in ſuch horrid pictures of villany) the crimes of the other ſide, he weakens rather than increaſes the melancholy impreſſions made on every feeling mind during this eventful period.

He is not only deficient in the neceſſary impartiality of an hiſtorian, but alſo in the knowledge requiſite to qualify a writer to enter into the views of the parties which ſucceſſively aroſe during the revolution. Occupied with the objects before him, he ſeems to think that the influence of individuals was very great in exciting a commotion, doubtleſs moſt wonderful in its kind; and, like many others, he is led to believe that it was the effect of a conſpiracy of ſome pretended philoſophers, viſionary atheiſts, and worthleſs men of fortune. With this conceit in his head, we are not ſurpriſed that he ſhould quote with much approbation the deluſions of the abbé Barruel and profeſſor Robiſon, and refer the effervеſcence of a great nation to very unimportant agents. This hypotheſis is a mere fiction invented by men who are ready to acquieſce in an apparently eaſy ſolution of all the difficulties attending a very intereſting period, inſtead of taking the trouble to dive into the receſſes of hiſtory, and to diſcover,

in remote periods, the germs of thofe evils which at laft united *en maffe* to the fubverfion of the empire. It muft be the tafk of an hiftorian in the next century to point out the various caufes which rendered the reftoration of the ancient conftitution of France the means of deftroying its monarchy. A benevolent fovereign, defirous of reftoring the old laws, convokes the ftates of his realm, which, inftead of uniting with him in his views for the promotion of the happinefs of the people, deftroy the conftitution; and the people, who at one time were extravagantly fond of their monarch, now run into the oppofite extreme, and hold the very name in abhorrence. Such extraordinary changes are not produced without an adequate caufe; and he who looks for it in the meetings of a few felf-called *illuminati* in Bavaria, or in a more extended toleration of philofophical difcuffion, may, in thefe times, by an appeal to the paffions, convert many to his opinion, but muft not expect much attention from reflecting minds, or from the patient inveftigators of hiftoric truth.

Under the article La Fayette, our author's want of impartiality is remarkably fhown; for though he continues his account of Dumouriez to his refidence in Altona, every circumftance relative to La Fayette, after his capture by the Pruffians, is fuppreffed; and the following reafons for this defalcation are given in a note at the clofe of this article.

'I clofe the memoirs of la Fayette at this period, becaufe a difcuffion of the particulars of his captivity and releafe is not confiftent with the principal object of this work. Thofe who may be inclined to purfue the fubject are referred to the difcuffion of his proteft by Peltier (Late Picture, vol. ii. p. 188); to the admirable fpeeches of Burke and Windham in the Parliamentary Debates; and to a pamphlet, intitled "An Effay on the Caufes and Viciffitudes of the French Revolution, including a Vindication of General la Fayette's character." Vol. i. p. 482.

Was the writer apprehenfive that the dungeons of Olmutz would extenuate the guilt of the Luxembourg or the Conciergerie? By us every fpecies of cruelty, whether practifed by imperial or republican minifters, fhall be holden up to public abhorrence; and we regret that the writer did not perceive that the great object of his work would be beft accomplifhed by fhowing tyranny and oppreffion in their proper colours wherever they appeared.

The failure of the writer in this refpect deferves more fevere reprehenfion, fince he is particular in drawing the attention of his reader to the liberal treatment of a ftate prifoner under the old government in the Baftille, compared with the cruelty of the republicans. We fhall felect thefe extracts, not only as the moft interefting parts of the work, but to do

that juſtice to the Baſtille which impartiality requires, and which, from our acquaintance with a perſon confined in it, we know to be true.

'Dumouriez was conveyed to the Baſtille at nine o'clock at night; he was received by the major, and underwent a minute ſearch: his money, knife, and ſhoe-buckles were taken from him. The reaſon aſſigned for the latter privation was, that a priſoner had ſtrangled himſelf by ſwallowing the tongue of a buckle; yet with all this ſagacity they left him his knee-buckles. The ſearch and enumeration of his effects took up an hour and a half. Dumouriez then complained of hunger, and required a fowl might be ſent for from the next tavern. "A fowl," ſaid the major; "do you know that this is Friday?" "You are entruſted with my perſon only, and not my conſcience," anſwered the priſoner. "I am ill; for the Baſtille itſelf is a malady: do not, therefore, refuſe me a fowl." He was accordingly indulged.

'The place of his confinement was an octagonal chamber, about fifteen feet in every direction, and twenty five in height; the only window, which was twenty-two feet from the floor, and opened in three different parts, was a narrow embraſure, at leaſt fifteen feet thick, guarded with double rows of maſſy iron bars. All the moveables conſiſted of an old bed, with ſerge curtains, very dirty and uncomfortable, a *chaiſe percée*, a wooden table, a ſtraw-bottomed chair, and a pitcher. A turnkey, or jailor, who was a robuſt man, with a clowniſh aſpect, lighted a fire, left a candle, and retired. When Dumouriez inquired if he could not have a better chamber, the jailor aſſured him that it was one of the beſt in all the tower of liberty, for, by a refinement in barbarity, they had given that name to one of the towers of the Baſtille. Struck with this reflection, Dumouriez ſaid, laughing, "It appears to me, that in this charming habitation, they add a biting kind of ſauce to their hoſpitality." The obſervation was repeated by the turnkey, and inſerted in a regiſter, where all the ſmart ſayings extorted by anguiſh, vexation, or ſurpriſe, from the unfortunate, were carefully recorded.

'The next day he was awakened by the noiſe of keys uſed in opening two very thick doors, fortified with plates of iron. Bread and wine were brought for his breakfaſt, and he was appriſed that at nine o'clock he muſt wait on the governor. Dumouriez was conducted before him by a ſerjeant, and four invalids. The governor, the count de Jumilhac, was an old officer, and a man of pleaſure, kind, ſenſible, and well informed. He told Dumouriez, that the king allowed fifteen livres (13*s.* 1½*d.*) a-day for him, and three (2*s.* 7½*d.*) for each of his ſervants, ſo that if he was not well treated he might prefer his complaint to him. He alſo ſaid, that, in conformity to the regulations of the Baſtille, he would be conſidered as a cloſe priſoner, until his firſt examination had taken place;

that no perſon was allowed to converſe with him, or anſwer queſtions; and that, in ſtrictneſs, he ought not to be allowed pen, ink, or paper, or any book whatever, not even a prayer-book. "But," added the count, "I am too much intereſted in your behalf to conform ſtrictly to this rule. I am too old to viſit you in your apartment. I ſhall, therefore, require you to deſcend every morning into this hall: carry theſe two volumes with you, and conceal them." Dumouriez ſaw the governor every morning, who not only furniſhed him with books, but recounted the anecdotes of the gay world. He carried his attention ſo far as to ſupply him with a ſmall quantity of lemons, ſugar, coffee, and foreign wines; he alſo ſent him a diſh from his own table when he dined at home.' Vol. i. P. 366.

During his confinement in this apartment, he underwent ſeveral examinations.

'Pending theſe examinations, Dumouriez had quarrelled with his gaoler, who was ſtout, athletic, inſolent, and choleric. This man treated him with great indignity, addreſſed him contemptuouſly, (*thou'd* him,) and threatened to ſtrike him. The priſoner ſprang towards the chimney, and ſeizing a firebrand, knocked him down. The quarrel was referred to the major, who ſeemed inclined to favour the turnkey; but Dumouriez appealed to his friend the governor, who took cognizance of the diſpute; and was with difficulty prevented, by the intreaties of the priſoner himſelf, from turning the man out of his office.' Vol. i. P. 369.

Finding that he was likely to remain a conſiderable time in priſon, Dumouriez, by an ingenious artifice, contrived to procure the favour of a removal to a better apartment.

'His new apartment was twenty-ſix feet long and eighteen broad, with a good fire-place, a neat bed, and an anti-chamber; but the room was dark, as it had but one window. In a few days he obtained an order for the removal of his ſervants, who were very happy to join him.

'Dumouriez now fared extremely well; his dinner, which always conſiſted of five diſhes, and his ſupper, compoſed of three, beſides the deſſert, were ſerved up together, and made a magnificent appearance. His valet prepared excellent ragouts; and their ſituation baniſhing all reſtraint, the three priſoners took their meals together. But the charms of ſuch ſociety ſoon wore off, and Dumouriez began to repent having obtained it. He had philoſophy enough to ſtifle his own regrets at the loſs of liberty; but his companions, leſs occupied, and leſs able to ſuſtain the privation of enjoyments, frequently brought him to a lively ſenſe of his ſituation by lamenting theirs. He was obliged to leave his ſtudies to amuſe them: he taught them games at cards and cheſs, and read romances and travels to them one hour in the morning and two at night,

He was, however, attacked with a ſciatica, and confined a week to his bed, and then became fully ſenſible of the value of their company and aſſiſtance.

'He was furniſhed with whatever books he required from his own library; and, during his confinement, wrote a tract on war, intitled "Military Principles;" and alſo a "Treatiſe on Legions." Vol. i. p. 371.

The republican treatment of priſoners appears to have varied according to the prevalence of the ſyſtem of terror.

'In one priſon they uſed to meet in the evening in a common-room, and ſit at a long table; the ladies amuſed themſelves with works appropriate to their ſex; every one brought a light, ſome of the gentlemen read, ſome painted, but a profound ſilence was uſually obſerved. After ſupper, till nine o'clock, they amuſed themſelves with the recitation of poetry, compoſed by the priſoners, with ſongs and muſic. The increaſe of numbers, additional ſeverities, and the daily murder of ſome of their companions, occaſionally embittered their meetings; yet they ſtill continued to amuſe themſelves, in ſpite of privations, dangers, and terrors. Frequent repetition rendered them almoſt indifferent even to the loſs of their companions. A perſon who had been fifteen months confined in the Conciergerie, informed Major Tench, that during that time he ſaw one hundred and ſixty-ſeven perſons go out of his room to the guillotine. He deſcribed almoſt all theſe victims as ſo conſcious of their innocence, and ſo reconciled to their fate, that nothing but reſignation, indifference, and levity prevailed throughout the priſon. It was cuſtomary to warn on the preceding evening thoſe who were to be tried the next day; and by a regulation made among themſelves, the party to be tried gave a ſupper on that night to the whole room; and if he was ſpared for the preſent and remanded back, he was in return treated with a dinner at their joint expence. The dinner entertainments were few indeed; but the ſuppers extremely frequent.

'In another priſon where the confinement was cloſer, they amuſed themſelves at midnight by the light of one ſingle taper, with a mock repreſentation of the revolutionary tribunal: ſome repreſented judges, ſome the jury; they had a public accuſer; the culprits were found guilty of courſe, and guillotined by a contrivance of one of their beds. The public accuſer himſelf was at laſt depoſed, tried, and executed; he roſe from the dead, related the horrible puniſhments which he ſuffered in the other world, and which awaited the judges and jurors. Thoſe *au ſecret* (in cloſe confinement) contrived to hold a club by a circuitous communication from cell to cell, finding means, notwithſtanding the thickneſs of the walls, to be heard from one dungeon to the other. The diſcloſure of news was forbid, but now and then a more humane

gaoler or guard would in a whiſper communicate ſome public event, the knowledge of which might be ſuppoſed agreeable to his hearers: this was reported again with caution, in ambiguous terms, ſuch as, I dreamt ſo and ſo; and when it was ſo public that it might be mentioned without ſuſpicion, they celebrated it in poetic compoſitions, ſongs, &c. Such were, the re-conqueſt of Toulon, the ſucceſſes of the armies in general, and the feaſt in honour of the ſupreme being, from which the priſoners formed the moſt flattering hopes.

'Theſe enjoyments ſolely counterbalanced a life embittered with daily increaſing cruelty. They were ſurrounded with ſpies, who endeavoured by acts of the moſt brutal inſolence to force them to complain; and if they did not ſucceed, invented circumſtances they could not occaſion, rather than fail in gratifying their employers. This rendered communication inſecure, and added a terrible reſtraint to thoſe under which they already laboured. The language of their gaolers often led them to dread another maſſacre like that of September 1792, and haraſſed them by continual fears; which were reinforced by the excavations made in yards of moſt of the priſons at the ſame period. The gaolers pretended they were meant for ſeſs-pools; but the priſoners feared they were deſigned for their graves.' Vol. i. p. 195.

Where priſoners could meet and entertain themſelves in the manner above deſcribed, they were comparatively happy; for, in other places, their treatment was ſhocking to humanity.

'The Conciergerie, during the old government, was a priſon for the worſt malefactors; with whom it was ſhared, under the revolutionary government, by thoſe who were arreſted as ſuſpected, or had been condemned by the dreadful tribunal, and were awaiting the execution of their ſentence. Its cells are ſubterraneous; over them are ſhops and walks where the gaiety and profuſion of all comers mark in ſtrong colours the contraſted woes and penury of the unfortunate priſoners. Four wickets, at ſmall diſtances from each other, ſecured the entrance to this horrible priſon, each guarded by wretches taken from the dregs of vulgar brutality; diſguſting from vice, filth, and inebriety, and ſpeaking a language peculiar to their occupation, in Engliſh called *ſlang*. Between the two firſt doors the priſoner was introduced to the turnkey, who, attended by ſome myrmidons, examined his features, gave orders for his reception, and paſſed him on through the other wickets. The place in which priſoners were at firſt lodged, was called the *ſouricière*, or mouſe-trap, a dungeon impervious to the rays of the ſun, and exhaling an infectious odour, from the accumulated filth of perſons who had previouſly occupied it. The ſtraw provided for a bed, was rotten with damp and filth, and the rats ate the ſhoes, the clothes, and even the fleſh of the unhappy tenant. In this infernal abode they

were ſometimes left for thirty-ſix or forty-eight hours, without relief, without communication, and without food. They were afterwards transferred to ſome other chamber, or to a different priſon. The diſtinction of apartments in the Conciergerie was made by the terms *à la piſtole*, in the ſtraw, or in the dungeons. The firſt ſet were denominated from the monthly price paid for a wretched bed; the others were only diſtinguiſhed from each other by this, that thoſe in the ſtraw were turned out of their apartments between eight and nine in the morning, and not permitted to re-enter them till about an hour before ſun-ſet, while thoſe in the dungeons were confined all day. The accumulation of priſoners was alike in all; the increaſing rigor of the revolutionary government cauſed arreſtations ſo numerous, that many perſons could not find room in the cells, and were obliged to take up their abode in the galleries. The whole priſon, from crowd, dirt, want of air, and other incommodities, was ſo unwholeſome, that the confined fell ill and died in ſuch quantities as to exceed credibility.' Vol. i. p. 190.

'The day was thus divided: one hour at table, for they had but one meal, three hours of recreation, and twenty cloſe confinement.

'This meal, inſtead of being a pleaſure, was merely of uſe to prolong a wretched and precarious exiſtence. The introduction of any food from without was ſtrictly forbid; a table was eſtabliſhed in the priſon, at which the confined fed *a la gamelle*, catch as catch can; about a hundred plates were ſet at a table covered with three diſhes; the priſoners, deprived of their knives and forks, were obliged to tear the meat with their fingers, and their whole ſuſtenance for the remainder of the day was ſo much as they could reſerve from this ſcanty and diſguſting meal, a little bread and water. The legiſlature allowed to each individual but fifty ſols a-day for food, which, according to the price of proviſions in Paris, afforded a miſerable ſubſiſtence, and was rendered ſtill worſe by the rapacity of the *traiteurs*. In ſome of the priſons they gave half a bottle of adulterated wine, a diſh of French beans ſtewed in ſtinking greaſe or tallow, a ſalt herring, rotten and worm-eaten; in ſome a little putreſcent meat, and vegetables full of dirt, hair, and worms.' Vol. i. p. 192.

From theſe quotations our readers may form an idea of our author's manner. It may be obſerved, that his ſtyle is ſometimes forced and turgid, and that he occaſionally affects the Johnſonian diction, without the proper vigour of ſentiment to ſupport it. But, upon the whole, the work is intereſting as containing a numerous collection of facts, which may gratify the temporary curioſity of the reader.

Sermons by J. B. Maſſillon, Biſhop of Clermont. Selected and Tranſlated by William Dickſon, and dedicated, by permiſſion, to her Grace the Ducheſs of Buccleugh. 3 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 18*s. Boards.* Ogilvy *and* Son.

THE French have a word in their language particularly applicable to the ſtyle of the amiable prelate whoſe diſcourſes now appear in an Engliſh dreſs. They call it *onction*; and we have not, in our language, any term correſponding with it, unleſs we may be allowed to ſubſtitute *richneſs* for it. This quality, indeed, is rarely cultivated by our preachers; and thoſe who poſſeſs it too frequently degrade it by the lowneſs of their ideas and the diſregard of elegance in their manner. How can a preacher aim at *onction*, at that animated flow of language and ſentiment which may pierce the ſoul, when a written paper is between his eyes and the perſons of his auditors, and when, inſtead of impreſſing every ſentiment on all around by his looks and his action, he is entirely occupied with one idea, that of reading with propriety. Hence the ſermons from our pulpits are directed to the head, ſeldom affecting the heart: they are ſerious, cold, diſpaſſionate, learned, nervous, diſcourſes; but they ſcarcely ever rouſe the ſoul by ſublime flights of eloquence, or melt it by pathetic ſtrains. They are ſuppoſed to have arrived at the utmoſt point of perfection when they are guides to the judgement; and, in this reſpect, they may claim the ſuperiority over thoſe of other nations.

Very different, in point of ſtyle, are the ſermons before us. The admirers of the Engliſh mode of preaching will feel themſelves as it were in a new world, if they can prevail on themſelves to indulge in a ſpecies of writing to which they have been little accuſtomed; and we may add, that, though we highly eſteem many diſcourſes in our language, the ſolidity of a Tillotſon or a Barrow, when combined with the *onction* of a Maſſillon, would form a model for our divines which would render the eloquence of our pulpits more impreſſive and efficacious than it now is. But we haſten to ſet before our readers the peculiar excellencies of Maſſillon; and we cannot do this in a better manner than by preſenting to them his character as delineated by one who was fully capable of appreciating his merits. D'Alembert, in his *éloge* on Maſſillon, prefixed to theſe diſcourſes, thus pourtrays the ſtriking features of his eloquence.

'He excells in that property of an orator, which can alone ſupply all the reſt; in that eloquence, which goes directly to the ſoul, which agitated, without convulſing; which alarms, without appalling; which penetrates, without rending the heart. He ſearch-

es out thoſe hidden folds, in which the paſſions lie enveloped; theſe ſecret ſophiſms, which blind and ſeduce. To combat and to deſtroy theſe ſophiſms, he has in general only to unfold them: this he does with an unction ſo affectionate and ſo tender, that he allures us rather than compels; and even when he ſhews us the picture of our vices, he intereſts and delights us the moſt. His diction, always ſmooth and elegant, and pure, is every where marked with that noble ſimplicity, without which, there is neither good taſte nor true eloquence; a ſimplicity, which being united in Maſſillon, with the ſweeteſt and moſt bewitching harmony, borrowed from this latter additional graces; but what compleats the charm of this enchanting ſtyle, is our conviction, that ſo many beauties ſpring from an exuberant ſource, and are produced without effort or pain. It ſometimes happens, indeed, that a few inaccuracies eſcape him, either in the expreſſion, in the turn of the phraſe, or in the affecting melody of his ſtyle; ſuch inaccuracies, however, may be called happy ones, for they completely prevent us from ſuſpecting the leaſt degree of labour in his compoſition. It was by this happy negligence, that Maſſillon gained as many friends as auditors; he knew, that the more an orator is intent upon gaining admiration, the leſs thoſe who hear him are diſpoſed to grant it; and that this ambition is the rock on which ſo many preachers have ſplit, who being entruſted, if one may dare thus to expreſs it, with the intereſts of the deity, wiſh to mingle with them the inſignificant intereſts of their own vanity. He compared the ſtudied eloquence of learned preachers to thoſe flowers, which grow ſo luxuriantly amongſt the corn, that are lovely to the view, but noxious to the corn.

'Maſſillon reaped another advantage from that heart-affecting eloquence, which he made ſo happy an uſe of. As he ſpoke the language of all conditions, becauſe he ſpoke to the heart, all deſcriptions of men flocked to his ſermons; even unbelievers were eager to hear him; they often found inſtruction, when they expected only amuſement, and returned ſometimes converted, when they thought they were only beſtowing or with-holding their praiſe. Maſſillon could deſcend to the language, which alone they would liſten to, that of a philoſophy, apparently human, but which, finding every avenue to the heart laid open, allowed the orator to approach without effort and aſſiſtance; and made him conqueror, even before he had engaged.' Vol. i. p. x.

We muſt, indeed, relinquiſh ſome of our Engliſh prejudices, if we wiſh to derive pleaſure and improvement from theſe volumes. If the preacher ſhould ſeem to us to have gone too far in his addreſſes to the heart, let us recollect where, and to whom, he preached, and who he was. At Paris, before a ſplendid court, this truly evangelical preacher conſidered himſelf as intruſted with a very important commiſſion. In his

ſight, all men on the ſacred ground were equal: he made no diſtinctions; he flattered no one; he neither aimed at the praiſe, nor feared the cenſure, of any. The converſion of the ſoul to God was the only object and the prize of his ambition. If we trace him in his biſhopric of Clermont, we may perceive, equally diſplayed, the amiable ſimplicity of his manners, the goodneſs of his heart, and his zeal in the cauſe of religion. He who was admired by the court of France was beloved by the inhabitants of Clermont. His apoſtolical manners develope themſelves in every diſcourſe: the life of the prelate and his writings throw light on each other; and the feeling mind enjoys double pleaſure in reflecting that every ſentiment which is inſpired by the peruſal of theſe diſcourſes was exemplified in the practice of the writer.

We might open the volumes at random and offer extracts without ſelection, to gratify our readers; but, to lead thoſe who have heard only of the reputation of the preacher into the full blaze of his eloquence, we will preſent them with a paſſage which is ſaid to have made a very forcible impreſſion upon the audience. He had been giving reaſons for the ſmallneſs of the number of perſons likely to be ſaved; and he brings on his grand apoſtrophe in the following words.

'These, my brethren, are truths which ſhould make us tremble; nor are they thoſe vague ones which are told to all men, and which none apply to themſelves: perhaps there is not in this aſſembly, an individual, who may not ſay of himſelf, "I live like the great number; like thoſe of my rank, age, and ſituation; I am loſt, ſhould I die in this path." Now can any thing be more capable of alarming a ſoul, in whom ſome remains of care for his ſalvation ſtill exiſt? It is the multitude, nevertheleſs, who tremble not. There is only a ſmall number of juſt, which operates apart, its ſalvation, with fear and trembling: all the reſt are tranquil. After having lived with the multitude, they flatter themſelves they ſhall be particulariſed at death; every one augurs favourably for himſelf, and chimerically thinks he ſhall be an exception.

'On this account, it is, my brethren, that I confine myſelf to you, who at preſent are aſſembled here; I include not the reſt of men; but conſider you as alone exiſting on the earth. The idea, which occupies and frightens me, is this, I figure to myſelf the preſent, as your laſt hour, and the end of the world: that the heavens are going to open above your heads; our Saviour in all his glory, to appear in the midſt of this temple; and that you are only aſſembled here to wait his coming, like trembling criminals, on whom the ſentence is to be pronounced, either of life eternal, or of everlaſting death: for it is vain to flatter yourſelves, that you ſhall die more innocent than you are at this hour; all thoſe deſires of change with which you are amuſed, will continue to amuſe you

till death arrives; the experience of all ages proves it; the only difference you have to expect, will moſt likely be only a larger balance againſt you than what you would have to anſwer for at preſent: and from what would be your deſtiny, were you to be judged this moment, you may almoſt decide upon what will take place at your departure from life. Now I aſk you, (and connecting my own lot with yours, I aſk it with dread,) were Jeſus Chriſt to appear in this temple, in the midſt of this aſſembly, to judge us, to make the dreadful ſeparation betwixt the goats and ſheep, do you believe that the greateſt number of us would be placed at his right hand? do you believe that the number would at leaſt be equal? do you believe there would even be found ten upright and faithful ſervants of the Lord, when formerly five cities could not furniſh ſo many? I aſk you. You know not: and I know it not. Thou alone, O my God! knoweſt who belong to thee.

' But if we know not who belong to him, at leaſt we know that ſinners do not. Now, who are the juſt and faithful, aſſembled here at preſent? Titles and dignities avail nothing: you are ſtripped of all theſe in the preſence of your Saviour: who are they? Many ſinners, who wiſh not to be converted; many more who wiſh, but always put it off; many others, who are only converted in appearance, and again fall back to their former courſes: in a word, a great number, who flatter themſelves they have no occaſion for converſion: this is the party of the reprobate. Ah! my brethren, cut off from this aſſembly theſe four claſſes of ſinners, for they will be cut off at the great day: and now appear, ye juſt: where are ye? O God! where are thy choſen? And what a portion remains to thy ſhare!

' My brethren, our ruin is almoſt certain; yet we think not of it. When even in this terrible ſeparation, which will one day take place, there ſhould be only one ſinner in this aſſembly, on the ſide of the reprobate; and that a voice from heaven ſhould aſſure us of it without particulariſing him: who of us would not tremble, leaſt he ſhould be the unfortunate and devoted wretch? who of us would not immediately apply to his conſcience, to examine if his crimes merited not this puniſhment? who of us, ſeized with dread, would not demand of our Saviour, as the apoſtles formerly did, and ſay, "Lord, is it I?" And ſhould a ſmall reſpite be allowed to our prayers, who of us would not uſe every effort, by tears, ſupplications, and ſincere repentance, to avert the misfortune? Are we in our ſenſes, my dear hearers? perhaps, among all who liſten to me, ten juſt would not be found; perhaps fewer: what do I know, O my God! I dare not with a fixed eye regard the depths of thy judgments and thy juſtice. More than one perhaps would not be found amongſt us all. And this danger affects you not, my dear hearer? you perſuade yourſelf, that in this great number who ſhall periſh, you will be the happy individual; you, who have leſs reaſon perhaps than any other to believe it; you, upon whom alone

the ſentence of death ſhould fall, were only one of all who hear me, to ſuffer? Great God! how little are the terrors of thy law known to the world! in all ages, the juſt have ſhuddered with dread, in reflecting on the ſeverity and extent of thy judgments upon the deſtinies of men: alas! what do they prepare for the children of Adam!

'But what are we to conclude from theſe grand truths? That all muſt deſpair of ſalvation? God forbid: the impious alone, to quiet his own feelings in his debaucheries, endeavours to perſuade himſelf, that all men ſhall periſh as well as he.

'This idea ought not to be the fruit of the preſent diſcourſe. It is meant to undeceive you with regard to the general error, that any one may do whatever others do; to convince you that in order to merit ſalvation, you muſt diſtinguiſh yourſelves from the reſt; in the midſt of the world, lead a life to the glory of God, and reſemble not the multitude.' Vol. i. P. 77.

We might here leave the reader to his own ſenſations; but it is neceſſary to obſerve, that, in leſs lofty flights, the preacher is ſtill himſelf, and, with equal eye, notices the failings of his own profeſſion and the laity. We will add an extract in which he has given very nearly the true meaning of a paſſage that has excited much diſpute among commentators.

'The apoſtle deſired, that the Chriſtian women ſhould be covered with a veil in the temple, on account of the angels, that is to ſay, of the prieſts, who are continually preſent there before God, and whoſe innocence and purity ought to equal that of the heavenly ſpirits. True it is, that thou thereby warneſt us, O my God, what ought, in our temples, to be the holy gravity, and the inviolable collection of thy miniſters; that it is for us to bear here, ſtamped upon our countenance, the holy dread of the myſteries which we offer up, and the lively and intimate ſenſe of thy preſence; that it is for us to inſpire here the people around us with reſpect, by the ſole appearance of our modeſty; that it is for us not to appear around the altar, and employed in the holy miniſtry, often more wearied, more careleſs, and more in haſte than even the aſſiſting multitude; and not to authoriſe their irreverences by our own. For, O my God! the deſolation of the holy place hath commenced with the ſanctuary itſelf; the reſpect of the people there hath become weakened only in conſequence of being no longer ſupported by the holy gravity of the worſhip, and the majeſty of the ceremonies; and thy houſe hath begun to be a houſe of diſſipation and of ſcandal, only ſince thy miniſters have made of it a houſe of traffic, of wearineſs, and of avarice. But our examples, in authoriſing your profanations, do not excuſe them, my brethren.' Vol. ii. P. 421.

The following juſt and beautiful ſentiments on prayer will

be felt by all who have with ſincerity employed themſelves in that duty.

'Prayer is not an exertion of the mind, an arrangement of ideas, a profound knowledge of the myſteries and counſels of God; it is a ſimple emotion of the heart; it is a lamentation of the ſoul, deeply affected at the ſight of its own wretchedneſs; it is a keen and inward feeling of our wants and of our weakneſs, and an humble confidence which it lays before its Lord, in order to obtain relief and deliverance from them. Prayer ſuppoſes in the ſoul which prays neither great lights, uncommon knowledge, nor a mind more cultivated and exalted than that of the reſt of men; it ſuppoſes only more faith, more contrition, and a warmer deſire of deliverance from its temptations and from its wretchedneſs. Prayer is neither a ſecret nor a ſcience which we learn from men; nor is it an art, or a private method, upon which it is neceſſary to conſult ſkilful teachers, in order to be maſter of its rules and precepts. The methods and the maxims thereupon, pretended to be laid down to us in our days, are either ſingular ways which are not to be followed, or the vain ſpeculations of an idle mind, or a fanaticiſm, which may ſtop at nothing, and which, far from edifying the church, hath merited her cenſures, and hath furniſhed, to the impious, matter of deriſion againſt her, and to the world, freſh pretexts of contempt for, and diſguſt at prayer. Prayer is a duty, upon which we are all born inſtructed: the rules of this divine ſcience are written ſolely in our hearts; and the ſpirit of God is the ſole maſter to teach it.' Vol. ii. p. 91.

The ſketch of the progreſs of ſin, in a ſermon on the reſurrection of Lazarus, affords another diſplay of the rhetorical powers of the preacher: and the ſimile, between the withdrawing of the divine ſpirit from the ſoul and of the ſun's light from our hemiſphere, is as complete in all its parts as it is beautiful.

'I confeſs that every ſin is an error which makes us miſtake evil for good; it is a falſe judgment which makes us ſeek, in the creature, that eaſe, grandeur, and independence which we can find in God alone: it is a miſt which hides order, truth, and righteouſneſs from our eyes, and, in their place, ſubſtitutes vain phantoms. Nevertheleſs, a firſt falling off from God does not altogether extinguiſh our lights; nor is it always productive of total darkneſs. It is true that the ſpirit of God, ſource of all light, retires, and no longer dwells within us; but ſome traces of light are ſtill left in the ſoul: thus, though the ſun be already withdrawn from our hemiſphere, yet certain rays of his light ſtill tinge the ſky, and form, as it were, an imperfect day; it is only in proportion as he ſinks that gloom gains, and the darkneſs of night at laſt prevails. In the ſame manner, in proportion as ſin degenerates into habit, the light

of God retires, darkneſs gains, and the profound night of total blindneſs at laſt arrives.

'And then all becomes occaſion of error to the criminal ſoul; all changes its aſpect to his eyes; the moſt ſhameful paſſions no longer appear but as weakneſſes; the moſt criminal attachments but ſympathies brought with us into the world and inherent to our hearts; the exceſſes of the table but innocent pleaſures of ſociety; revenge but a juſt ſenſe of injury; licentious and impious converſations but lively and agreeable ſallies; the blackeſt defamation but a cuſtomary language of which none but weak and timid minds can make a ſcruple; the laws of the church but old-faſhioned cuſtoms; the ſeverity of God's judgments but abſurd declamations which equally diſgrace his goodneſs and mercy; death in ſin, inevitable conſequence of a criminal life, mere predictions, in which there is more of zeal than of truth, and refuted by the confidence which a return to God, previous to that laſt moment, promiſes to us; laſtly, heaven, the earth, hell, all creatures, religion, crimes, virtues, good and evil, things preſent and to come, all change their aſpect to the eyes of a ſoul who lives in habitual guilt; all ſhew themſelves under falſe appearances; his whole life is no longer but a deluſion and a continued error. Alas! could you tear away the fatal veil which covers your eyes, like thoſe of Lazarus, and behold yourſelf, like him, buried in darkneſs; all covered with putrefaction, and ſpreading around infection and a ſmell of death! But now, ſays our Saviour, all theſe things are hid from thine eyes; you ſee in yourſelf only the embelliſhments and the pompous externals of the fatal tomb in which you drag on in ſin; your rank, your birth, your talents, your dignities, your titles; that is to ſay, the trophies and the ornaments which the vanity of men has there raiſed up; but, remove the ſtone which covers that place of horror; look within, judge not of yourſelf from theſe pompous outſides, which ſerve only to embelliſh your carcaſe; ſee what, in the eyes of God, you are; and, if the corruption and the profound blindneſs of your ſoul touch you not, let its ſlavery at leaſt rouſe and recall you to yourſelf.' Vol. iii. p. 301.

We could with pleaſure continue our extracts; but our limits admoniſh us to quit the ſubject. The tranſlator has, we think, performed a very acceptable ſervice to the public: we can excuſe ſome Scoticiſms and ſome Galliciſms, as the ſelection which he has made is good. To thoſe who can diſcriminate what may be conſidered as belonging to the Romiſh church, a more valuable preſent can ſcarcely be offered than theſe truly apoſtolical diſcourſes of a truly catholic biſhop.

Poems, sacred and moral. By Thomas Gisborne, M. A. 8*vo.* 4*s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1798.

MR. Gisborne has honourably distinguished himself by the moral and religious tendency of his writings both in prose and in verse. His Walks in a Forest* discovered poetical talents of no mean degree. Descriptions of natural beauties, if tolerably executed, always please; and the devotional feelings which the author wished to excite, arose immediately from his subject. In the present volume, Mr. Gisborne has attempted the more difficult task of lyric composition.

The Dying Indian is not an ode equal to its subject: the language has not the savage fierceness and strength by which it should be characterised. We remembered the Death Song of Regner Lodbrog, and felt the imbecility of this. The religious point of the poem is expressed in the concluding stanza:

'He spoke, he laugh'd, he died.
"Hail, my unequall'd Son," said Pride.
"Not so;" a voice from Heaven replied.
"Is He the truly brave,
Victor of pain, but thine and Passion's slave?
His holy head see Stephen bow:
See meekness calm his angel brow.
Around see Malice scowl, see Vengeance glare;
See Rage the murderous stones prepare;
And Saul the garments keep.
Hark!—' Lord, their sin forgive!
My spirit, Lord, receive!—'
He spake, and fell asleep." P. 32.

In this there seems to be a want of accuracy. The savage is not the less brave because he is the slave of pride and passion. Error has had its martyrs as well as truth: in both cases the fortitude is the same.

The Reformation is a better poem.

'Even now behold the signs display'd
Of roused alarm, of vengeful ire!
Volumes of smoke the pile o'ershade;
Each roaring turret pours its fire.
For lo, the keen-eyed Guards descry
In human guise an Angel Foe draw nigh!
Still as more fierce the vollied lightning glows,
His form dilates, his stature grows.
Nor spear nor sword he deigns to wield;
Backward he flings his radiant shield;

* See Crit. Rev. New. Arr. Vol. XVI. p. 42.

Beſide yon bulwark takes his ſtand;
The buttreſs graſps with giant hand;
Shakes, Sampſon-like, the nodding towers amain,
And opes the mighty rent, that ne'er ſhall cloſe again.

" So wait, Abhorred Pile, thy fall—"
Ere yet anew he ſeeks the ſkies,
" So nurſe beneath thy ruin'd wall
Thy ſerpent brood," the Victor cries.
So wait thy fall, ſo nurſe thy brood
O'ergorged and drunk with Saints' and Martyrs' blood;
Till, cloſed the number'd years by Heaven aſſign'd
The ſcorners of its law to blind,
And prove by more than Pagan rage
The votaries of the ſacred page;
He, Lord of Angels and of Men,
In Thee ſtill crucified again,
Comes, robed in clouds, to vindicate His name,
And ſink thy mouldering wrecks in everduring flame.

" Servants of God! far hence repair;
Come forth, come forth, ere yet too late:
Who join her ſins, her fate muſt ſhare;
Fly, fly her ſins, nor ſhare her fate!"

' Germania, ſtarting at the ſound,
And Cimbrian cliffs the warning notes rebound.
Swift o'er the Codan wave the echo flies;
And Scania to the call replies.
Heard ye Helvetia's riſing gales?
Alps cry to Alps, and vales to vales.
Lo, Albion, on her ſea-beat plain,
Claps her glad hands, and ſwells the ſtrain.
O'er Caledonian hills the murmur breaks;
And ſnow-clad Thule hears, and wonders as ſhe wakes.

' Where'er the warning notes are ſpread,
The carved ſaints, the graven ſtones,
And ſhaggy cloaks of Hermits dead,
And fabled martyrs crumbling bones,
And venal paſſports to the ſky
Flung to the moles and bats diſhonour'd lie.
There lie the tools of ſanctimonious guile,
By Prieſtcraft form'd his ſpells to pile
And dupe the crowd that gazed from far.
And hark, the cloiſter-doors unbar!
The impriſoned victims hurry forth:
Lo pale-eyed beauty, letter'd worth,
To Heaven their raptures lift in grateful ſtriſe;
And drink anew the gales of liberty and life.' P. 41.

The design of the poem entitled Consolation is to compare Christianity with the systems of Pyrrho, of Epicurus, and of Zeno. The comfortless uncertainty of Pyrrhonism is exposed with fidelity; but the Epicurean and Stoical systems are not represented with candour; the conduct of the former sect is thus described.

'Instant in visionary scene
Pleasure's bright mansions met my view:
From joy to joy, no pause between,
The maddening crowd unsated flew.
If chance, his gray head bending low,
Some beggar urged his tale of woe;
Swifter they past, and with averted eye,
Smote the loud harp, and drown'd the unwelcome cry.

'The feast was spread; the spicy wine
With gleaming blush the silver dyed:
Here Wit with flowers his darts would twine:
His ruder shafts there Humour plied;
From rank to rank he bade them roam:
Convulsive laughter shook the dome.
Here lyre and voice in rapturous conflict strove:
There the brisk dance its changeful mazes wove.

'Yet soon repeated pleasure cloy'd:
The ear scarce heard the jocund strain:
The dance was toil no more enjoy'd:
The spicy goblet breathed in vain
Its odours: on the palled tongue
Lingering the tasteless morsel hung:
The heartless smile betray'd its mimic air;
And languor sicken'd in the vacant stare.

'Foul passions oft would strip the veil;
Their sway the alter'd look proclaim'd:
Here, hollow cheeks with envy pale;
There, eyes with hate and rage inflamed.
With savage shout and uproar wild
Discord the banquet oft embroil'd.
Guest frown'd on guest, with hostile arms opposed:
And wounds and groans the frantic orgies closed.

'Oft would some wretch with tiger's glare
In murderous ambush take his stand:
The setting sun discern'd the snare;
The moon beheld his blood-stain'd hand.
Then farewel joy in song or feast!
Ideal horrors rack his breast:
The lyre's gay voice ideal shrieks control;
And fancied poisons mantle in the bowl.

'Triumphant o'er the ſenſual race,
Diſeaſe ere long her woes combined;
The bloated form, the ghaſtly face,
The palſied limb, the enervate mind.
Each on his couch of anguiſh laid,
On Death they call'd for inſtant aid:
Then ſhriek'd in terror, when advancing near
The phantom ſcowl'd, and ſhook his lifted ſpear.' P. 74.

The Stoic is repreſented as beholding happineſs without pleaſure, and miſery without emotion. He paſſes unmoved over a field of battle, and walks upon the dead. His father beſeeches him to ranſom him from captivity; and the ſon refuſes with brutal contempt. Is this the ſyſtem of Epictetus, or that of Antoninus? With the ſame candour, with the ſame juſtice, does the infidel attribute monaſtic abſurdities, and the cruelties of the inquiſition, to the ſpirit of Chriſtianity.

The Elegy on Mr. Maſon we mentioned with approbation on its ſeparate appearance*.

Among the ſmaller poems that of Conſcience is diſtinguiſhed by its correct and ſtrong verſification. The ſtanzas, entitled Fortitude, are intended to ſhow the ſuperiority of Chriſtian endurance to Roman contempt of death; and the inſtances choſen for the illuſtration of this point are Cato of Utica, and Louis XVI. The piece concludes with this ſtanza.

'Lo here the fortitude compar'd
That truth and error give!
'Twas but to die the Roman dared;
The Chriſtian dares to live.' P. 8.

The compariſon is injudicious; each acted rightly upon his own ſyſtem; and the Roman muſt not be tried by the *ex poſt facto* law of Chriſtianity. Upon this principle any man who ſubmits to public execution is a greater character than Cato of Utica. It is aſtoniſhing in what an abſurd and even blaſphemous manner the ſame kind of praiſe has been applied to Charles I. We remember one poem upon him which thus terminates:

'Here Charles the Firſt and Chriſt the Second lies!'

The ſtanzas to a Church Bell have leſs merit than any other piece in the volume. The Birth-Day Eve is a pleaſing poem: we extract ſome of its latter ſtanzas:

"King of Kings, Lord of Lords, God of heaven and earth,
Supreme, as in wiſdom, in might and in love!
Thy ſheltering hand overſhadow'd my birth,
And hung o'er my childhood a ſhield from above.

* See our XXIId Vol. New Arr. p. 352.

" When borne on the treacherous current of youth,
Thy love ſteer'd my bark, and made tranquil the ſtream;
Unfolded benignant the lamp of thy truth,
And bade me, tho' trembling, rejoice in the beam.

" To the bright ſhore of Manhood when eager I flew,
And with novelty charm'd the gay landſcape ſurvey'd;
To a lone valley pointing thy love bade me view
How ſoft was the verdure, how peaceful the ſhade;

" Bade my feet from its confines aſpire not to ſtray,
Bade me trace its pure brook, nor the ſtreamlet diſdain;
Bade me learn (may I learn!) from the emblem my way
In ſilence to hold, yet to hold not in vain.

" O Father! for now from her orbit the year,
Ere yon fires ſet again, ſhall her ſpeed have withdrawn;
And another with pinions unfurl'd her career
Stands prepared to begin at the peep of the dawn;

" O frown not, her tribute while gratitude pays,
And hails thee with rapture the Lord of her doom;
If Hope, ſtill confiding, her accent ſhould raiſe,
And plead with Thee, Father, for mercy to come!

" Be the year now at hand as the day that is paſt!—
As the ſun roſe this morn in calm luſtre array'd,
So riſe the new year by no grief overcaſt,
No turbulent ſtorm of misfortune diſmay'd!

" On the ſplendor of noon no obſcurity ſtole,
Save the dim flitting cloud, that but temper'd the ray:
So if Sorrow muſt darken the months as they roll,
O mild be her ſhadows, and paſſing her ſway!

" As the moonlight now ſlumbers on wood, hill, and plain,
And in ſilence the winds and the waters repoſe;
So may Peace ſhed her beams on the year in its wane,
So bright be its evening, ſo tranquil its cloſe!" P. 15.

This volume, on the whole, is highly creditable to the abilities, and, what he himſelf will receive and we conſider as higher praiſe, to the intentions of the author.

Obſervations on the Claims of the Moderns, to ſome Diſcoveries in Chymiſtry and Phyſiology. By G. D. Yeats, M. B. of Hertford College, Oxford, Member of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh, and Phyſician at Bedford. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Debrett. 1798.

IN our review of Dr. Beddoes' republication of Mayow's opinions *, we did ample juſtice to the character and memory of

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* See the Iſt Vol. of our New Arrangement, p. 45.

an author, whose sagacity and judgment enabled him to penetrate the veil, which before his time had covered nature in some of her most important processes. Mr. Yeats, little contented with commendations so warm as those which we bestowed on that physician, raises him into an oracle of truth, and detracts from the claims of modern discoverers, because he had preceded them in some of their paths, and hinted at what they have since explained. To substantiate his claim to this praise, much ought to have been added to his works; and, in particular, it should have been shown, that he knew heat to be a distinct substance, capable of combination with, and separation from, other bodies. This principle, of which the influence is so extensively diffused over modern chemistry, was unknown to Dr. Mayow, who adhered to the mechanical idea, that heat consisted in motion. Indeed, had Mr. Yeats consulted the writers of the last century with as much zeal for destroying the credit of his author as he has shown in unreasonably exalting it, he might have brought him very low. Drebbel's 'Spirit,' and various passages in the works of Boyle, show, that the whole bulk of atmospheric air was not supposed to be equally salutary, and that the salutary portion was thought to be contained in nitre. Bacon speaks of nitre as containing air, and air peculiarly fit for supporting flame: he says that the air comes from the nitre, and flame from the inflammable materials in gunpowder: that the active and igneous particles (igneo-aëriæ) come from the nitre, was therefore not less an error at the time when he wrote than at present. It is also remarkable, that Mr. Yeats should seemingly attribute the discovery of the composition of nitre to Mayow, when it had been so often described, particularly by Willis. Mayow, indeed, attributed the acid of nitre to the air, and seemed to think that some acid or nitrous principle floated in the air; but he was so little acquainted with the modern doctrine of the composition of acids, that, after endeavouring to explain why the air should not, on this account, be corrosive, he was obliged to rest on the idea, that the air contributed some unknown component part. That nitre sometimes existed, if not formally, at least potentially, in the air, occasioning its coldness, was a doctrine long anterior to his age.

Mayow's doctrine of acids, so greatly extolled, is one of the worst specimens of the mechanical reasoning in chemistry. He distinguishes between the aërial part, and the earthy and *acid* parts, explaining the acidity by the intestine motion of the fire-air particles, reducing the more obtuse particles of fixed salt to the sharpness of swords or needles. He undoubtedly discovered gasses of different qualities; but, from the uncertain nature of some of the substances employed, we cannot always, even at

prefent, afcertain the fpecies: to him they muft have been wholly unknown. In thefe experiments, however, his ingenuity, induftry, and addrefs, deferve much commendation.

Mr. Yeats, in the introduction to the chapter on Refpiration, has given a fhort hiftory of the opinions on this fubject, and has particularly remarked the frequent ufe of the word *fpirit* in contradiftinction to *air*. Something might be faid on this point: the little confiftency of old authors in their ufe of this word might be fhown; and it might be affirmed, that it has little relation to the prefent fubject. We only mention this part, however, to remark that in early ages fome furprifingly accurate ideas of nature, and of the caufes of various phænomena, were entertained, fcattered traces of which we ftill perceive in the writings of the Platonifts, and in the opinions preferved by tradition as thofe of Pythagoras. They probably once exifted in a more regular form, and may have been a part of that fyftem which prevailed very early in the eaft, and of which we have a beautiful fpecimen in the Mofaic narrative of the creation. When we find, from later difcoveries, the accuracy of thefe accounts, we are in doubt whether to attribute them to obfervation or to infpiration. Yet, while we admire thefe broken remains, we ought not to blame the philofophers who departed from them, or to think that thofe were deftitute of merit, who, from different views, returned to the fame path. In feveral refpects they contradicted what might be confidered as the plain evidence of the fenfes; and thofe whofe earlieft philofophical acquifitions taught them a very different leffon, muft poffefs great ftrength of mind, and no inconfiderable acutenefs, to efcape from their habitual trammels. While Mr. Yeats points out in Ovid or Hippocrates thefe imperfect traces of truth, he would with difficulty have admitted a fyftem formed on their tenets before the æra of Prieftley and Lavoifier; and yet he denies the merit of modern difcoverers, becaufe they could not fee facts under the guife of fufpicions, and becaufe they have obtained fome credit by departing from eftablifhed fyftems, and inveftigating the operations of nature with the clue of judicious experiment.

'Mayow's doctrine of refpiration is crude and jejune, interfperfed only with a few brilliant remarks. The florid colour of arterial blood is attributed to the motion excited by the nitro-aërial particles, or their union with the falino-fulphureous; and the heat is fuppofed to be produced by this fermentation. Such an imperfect view of fermentation certainly difgufted the chemically accurate Boerhaave; and, far diftant as this appears from the modern doctrine of refpiration and animal heat, it is ftill farther when we remark, that Mayow fuppofed the whole of the atmofpheric air to be abforbed, and

the nitro-aërial to be ſeparated in the blood-veſſels. The only improvement of Mayow is the demonſtration, that reſpiration does not break down the craſis of the blood, and that it contributes to heat rather than cool it. The latter is the conſequence of his ſyſtem of fermentation, and only *accidentally* true.

The effects of the fire-air particles in vegetation and in muſcular motion are of a ſimilar kind, ſuppoſed to excite heat and motion by their effervеſcence. The conſpiring action of the decuſſating tranſverſe intercoſtals was underſtood by Dr. Mayow; and he has deſcribed it with the ſame clearneſs and accuracy which appear in Dr. Monro's account. With regard to the diſcovery neither of the authors ſhould diſpute: thoſe who once raiſed the ribs in the ſkeleton muſt have made it.

Mayow has certainly explained the uſe of the ſpleen as ſome late authors have done; but, till the ſyſtem be proved, the merit muſt remain ambiguous. Little can be ſaid of his explanation of ſome diſeaſes from his doctrines. Modern diſcoverers cannot have drawn from *him*, as, in general, they greatly differ.

We have thus followed Mr. Yeats at a greater length than we intended, and than the merit of his work deſerved; but we felt ſome indignation at an attempt to deprive the moderns of thoſe laurels which are their greateſt ornament and boaſt; an attempt weak and unſupported. Extraordinary prolixity, and arguments vague and indeciſive, render this work unintereſting in a philoſophical view; and whatever the merits of Mayow may have been, they will not be much longer remembered in conſequence of this attempt.

Another object of Mr. Yeats is to ſhow, that the lacteals and lymphatics were known long before the time of their ſuppoſed diſcovery. On this ſubject we ſhall only remark, that no author ſpoke of them as if they had *never been ſeen*. The diſcoverers only claimed the merit of having ſhown them to be a diſtinct ſyſtem of veſſels, deſigned chiefly or excluſively for abſorption, and terminating in the thoracic duct; and of having pointed them out in every part of the human body, and in animals of other claſſes.

The language of this work is not leſs exceptionable than its ſubſtance. No diſcoverer has more pompouſly diſplayed his own merits than the author, who thinks that he has diſcovered the vanity of the pretenſions of his predeceſſors. The affectation of the plural pronoun, which reviewers uſe by preſcription, ('for they are many') is reprehenſible in an individual; and from the few grains of wheat hidden in buſhels of 'chaff,' the peruſal of this work becomes an unpleaſing and irkſome taſk.

Travels through the States of North America, and the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, during the Years 1795, 1796, *and* 1797. *By Isaac Weld, Junior.* 4to. 1*l.* 10*s. Boards.* Stockdale. 1799.

THE political agitations of Europe, for some years past, have occasioned every account of North-America to be perused with a curiosity much stronger than that which had previously been excited by the vast extent of the new continent, the various manners of its motley inhabitants, or even by its colonial connexion with the dominions of Great-Britain. That the public are indebted to the impulse we have noticed, for the present publication, appears from Mr. Weld's preface, in which the object and the extent of his travels are thus described:

'At a period when war was spreading desolation over the fairest parts of Europe, when anarchy seemed to be extending its frightful progress from nation to nation, and when the storms that were gathering over his native country* in particular, rendered it impossible to say how soon any one of its inhabitants might be forced to seek for refuge in a foreign land; the author of the following pages was induced to cross the Atlantic, for the purpose of examining with his own eyes into the truth of the various accounts which had been given of the flourishing and happy condition of the United States of America, and of ascertaining whether, in case of future emergency, any part of those territories might be looked forward to, as an eligible and agreeable place of abode. Arrived in America, he travelled pretty generally through the states of Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, New Jersey, and New York; he afterwards passed into the Canadas, desirous of obtaining equal information as to the state of those provinces, and of determining from his own immediate observations, how far the present condition of the inhabitants of the British dominions in America might be inferior, or otherwise, to that of the people of the States, who had now indeed thrown off the yoke, but were formerly common members of the same extensive empire.

'When abroad, he had not the most distant intention of publishing his travels; but finding on his return home, that much of the matter contained in the following letters was quite new to his friends, and being induced to think that it might prove equally new, and not wholly unacceptable to the public, he came to the resolution of committing them to print: accordingly the present volume is now offered to the world, in an humble hope, that if not entertaining to all readers, it will at least be so to some, as well as useful to future travellers.

'If it shall appear to any one, that he has spoken with too

* Ireland.

much aſperity of American men and American manners, the author begs that ſuch language may not be aſcribed to haſty prejudice, and a blind partiality for every thing that is European. He croſſed the Atlantic ſtrongly prepoſſeſſed in favour of the people and the country, which he was about to viſit; and if he returned with ſentiments of a different tendency, they reſulted ſolely from a cool and diſpaſſionate obſervation of what chance preſented to his view when abroad.' P. iii.

Our readers will be gratified by the author's account of his approach to Philadelphia:

'The ſhores of the bay and of the river Delaware, for a very conſiderable diſtance upwards, are low; and they are covered, like the coaſt, with one vaſt foreſt, excepting merely in a few places, where extenſive marſhes intervene. Nothing, however, could be more pleaſing than the views with which we were entertained as we ſailed up to Philadelphia. The trees had not yet quite loſt their foliage, and the rich red and yellow tints which autumn had ſuffuſed over the leaves of the oaks and poplars appeared beautifully blended with the ſombre green of the lofty pines; whilſt the river winding ſlowly and ſmoothly along under the banks, reflected in its glaſſy ſurface the varied colours of the objects on ſhore, as well as the images of multitudes of veſſels of various ſizes, which, as far as the eye could reach, were ſeen gliding ſilently along with the tide. As you approach towards Philadelphia, the banks of the river become more elevated; and on the left hand ſide, where they are much cleared, they are interſperſed with numberleſs neat farm-houſes, with villages and towns; and are in ſome parts cultivated down to the very edge of the water. The New Jerſey ſhore, on the right hand ſide, remains thickly wooded, even as far as the city.

'Veſſels very commonly aſcend to Philadelphia, when the wind is favourable, in twenty four hours; but unfortunately, as our ſhip entered the river, the wind died away, and ſhe had to depend ſolely upon the tide, which flows at the rate of about three miles only in the hour. Finding that the paſſage up to the city was likely therefore to become tedious, I would fain have gone on ſhore far below it; but this the captain would not permit me to do. By the laws of Pennſylvania, enacted in conſequence of the dreadful peſtilence which raged in the capital in the year 1793, the maſter of any veſſel bound for that port is made ſubject to a very heavy fine, if he ſuffers any perſon from on board her, whether mariner or paſſenger, to go on ſhore in any part of the ſtate, before his veſſel is examined by the health officer; and any perſon that goes on ſhore contrary to the will of the maſter of the veſſel, is liable to be impriſoned for a conſiderable length of time. In caſe the exiſtence of this law ſhould not be known on board a veſſel bound for a port in Pennſylvania, it is the buſineſs of the pilot to furniſh the maſter and the paſſengers on board with copies of it, with which he always comes pro-

vided. The health officer, who is a regular bred phyfician, refides at Mifflin Fort, four miles below the city, where there is a fmall garrifon kept. A boat is always fent on fhore for him from the fhip. After having been toffed about on the ocean for nine weeks nearly, nothing could be more tantalizing than to be kept thus clofe to the fhore without being permitted to land.

'Philadelphia, as you approach by the river, is not feen farther off than three miles, a point of land covered with trees concealing it from the view. On weathering this point it fuddenly opens upon you, and at that diftance it looks extremely well; but on a nearer approach, the city makes a poor appearance, as nothing is vifible from the water but confufed heaps of wooden ftorehoufes, crowded upon each other, the chief of which are built upon platforms of artificial ground, and wharfs which project a confiderable way into the river. The wharfs are of a rectangular form, and built of wood; they jut out in every direction, and are well adapted for the accommodation of fhipping, the largeft merchant veffels being able to lie clofe alongfide them. Behind thefe wharfs, and parallel to the river, runs Water-ftreet. This is the firft ftreet which you ufually enter after landing, and it does not ferve to give a ftranger a very favourable opinion either of the neatnefs or commodioufnefs of the public ways of Philadelphia. It is no more than thirty feet wide; and immediately behind the houfes, which ftand on the fide fartheft from the water, a high bank, fuppofed to be the old bank of the river, rifes, which renders the air very confined. Added to this, fuch ftenches at times prevail in it, owing in part to the quantity of filth and dirt that is fuffered to remain on the pavement, and in part to what is depofited in wafte houfes, of which there are feveral in the ftreet, that it is really dreadful to pafs through it. It was here that the malignant yellow fever broke out in the year 1793, which made fuch terrible ravages; and in the fummer feafon, in general, the ftreet is found extremely unhealthy. That the inhabitants, after fuffering fo much from the ficknefs that originated in it, fhould remain thus inattentive to the cleanlinefs of Water-ftreet is truly furprifing; more efpecially fo, when it is confidered, that the ftreets in the other parts of the town are as much diftinguifhed for the neatnefs that prevails throughout them, as this one is for its dirty condition.' P. 2.

Whether that horrible fcourge the yellow fever had a foreign or a domeftic origin, there can be no doubt that its ravages were extended by this neglect of cleanlinefs; and the inftance betrays a moft ftupid infatuation on the part of the Americans, and is highly difcreditable to the police of Philadelphia. Mr. Weld proceeds to notice the public buildings of the city, which he reprefents as difcovering little tafte in architecture. The common gaol, however, merits particular attention in other refpects—for the propriety of its regulations,

and the illuſtration which they give of the criminal laws of Pennſylvania.

'The gaol is a ſpacious building of common ſtone, one hundred feet in front. It is fitted up with ſolitary cells, on the new plan, and the apartments are all arched, to prevent the communication of fire. Behind the building are extenſive yards, which are ſecured by lofty walls. This gaol is better regulated, perhaps, than any other on the face of the globe. By the new penal laws of Pennſylvania, lately enacted, no crime is puniſhable with death, excepting murder of the firſt degree, by which is meant, murder that is perpetrated by wilful premeditated intention, or in attempts to commit rape, robbery, or the like. Every other offence, according to its enormity, is puniſhed by ſolitary impriſonment of a determined duration. Objections may be made to this mode of puniſhment, as not being ſufficiently ſevere on the individual to atone for an atrocious crime; nor capable, becauſe not inflicted in public, of deterring evil-minded perſons in the community from the commiſſion of offences which incur the rigour of the law; but on a cloſe examination, it will be found to be very ſevere; and as far as an opinion can be formed from the trial that has been hitherto made by the ſtate of Pennſylvania, it ſeems better calculated to reſtrain the exceſſes of the people than any other. If any public puniſhment could ſtrike terror into the lawleſs part of the multitude, it is as likely that the infliction of death would do it as any whatſoever; but death is diveſted of many of his terrors after being often preſented to our view; ſo that we find in countries, for inſtance in England, where it occurs often as puniſhment, the ſalutary effects that might be expected from it are in a great meaſure loſt. The unfortunate wretch, who is doomed to forfeit his life in expiation of the crimes he has committed, in numberleſs inſtances, looks forward with apparent unconcern to the moment in which he is to be launched into eternity; his companions around him only condole with him, becauſe his career of iniquity has ſo ſuddenly been impeded by the courſe of juſtice: or, if he is not too much hardened in the paths of vice, but falls a prey to remorſe, and ſees all the horrors of his impending fate, they endeavour to rally his broken ſpirits by the conſoling remembrance, that the pangs he has to endure are but the pangs of a moment, which they illuſtrate by the ſpeedy exit of one whoſe death he was perhaps himſelf witneſs to but a few weeks before. A month does not paſs over in England without repeated executions; and there is ſcarcely a vagabond to be met with in the country, who has not ſeen a fellow creature ſuſpended from the gallows. We all know what little good effect ſuch ſpectacles produce. But immured in darkneſs and ſolitude, the priſoner ſuffers pangs worſe than death a hundred times in the day: he is left to his own bitter reflections; there is no one thing to divert his attention, and he endeavours in vain to eſcape from

the horrors which continually haunt his imagination. In such a situation the most hardened offender is soon reduced to a state of repentance.

'But punishment by imprisonment, according to the laws of Pennsylvania, is imposed, not only as an expiation of past offences, and an example to the guilty part of society, but for another purpose, regarded by few penal codes in the world, the reform of the criminal. The regulations of the gaol are calculated to promote this effect as soon as possible, so that the building, indeed, deserves the name of a penitentiary house more than that of a gaol. As soon as a criminal is committed to the prison he is made to wash; his hair is shorn, and if not decently clothed, he is furnished with clean apparel; then he is thrown into a solitary cell, about nine feet long and four wide, where he remains debarred from the sight of every living being excepting his gaoler, whose duty it is to attend to the bare necessities of his nature, but who is forbidden, on any account, to speak to him without there is absolute occasion. If a prisoner is at all refractory, or if the offence for which he is imprisoned is of a very atrocious nature, he is then confined in a cell secluded even from the light of heaven. This is the worst that can be inflicted upon him.

'The gaol is inspected twice every week by twelve persons appointed for that purpose, who are chosen annually from amongst the citizens of Philadelphia. Nor is it a difficult matter to procure these men, who readily and voluntarily take it upon them to go through the troublesome functions of the office without any fee or emolument whatever. They divide themselves into committees; each of these takes it in turn, for a stated period, to visit every part of the prison; and a report is made to the inspectors at large, who meet together at times regularly appointed. From the report of the committee an opinion is formed by the inspectors, who, with the consent of the judges, regulate the treatment of each individual prisoner during his confinement. This is varied according to his crime, and according to his subsequent repentance. Solitary confinement in a dark cell is looked upon as the severest usage; next, solitary confinement in a cell with the admission of light; next, confinement in a cell where the prisoner is allowed to do some sort of work; lastly, labour in company with others. The prisoners are obliged to bathe twice every week, proper conveniences for that purpose being provided within the walls of the prison, and also to change their linen, with which they are regularly provided. Those in solitary confinement are kept upon bread and water; but those who labour are allowed broth, porridge, puddings, and the like: meat is dispensed only in small quantities, twice in the week. Their drink is water; on no pretence is any other beverage suffered to be brought into the prison. This diet is found, by experience, to afford the prisoners strength sufficient to perform the labour that is imposed upon them; whereas a more generous one would only serve to ren-

der their minds less humble and submissive. Those who labour, are employed in the particular trade to which they have been accustomed, provided it can be carried on in the prison; if not acquainted with any, something is soon found that they can do. One room is set apart for shoemakers, another for taylors, a third for carpenters, and so on; and in the yards are stone-cutters, smiths, nailers, &c. &c.

'Excepting the cells, which are at a remote part of the building, the prison has the appearance of a large manufactory. Good order and decency prevail throughout, and the eye of a spectator is never assailed by the sight of such ghastly and squalid figures as are continually to be met with in our prisons; so far, also, is a visitor from being insulted, that he is scarcely noticed as he passes through the different wards. The prisoners are forbidden to speak to each other without there is necessity; they are also forbidden to laugh, or to sing, or to make the smallest disturbance. An overseer attends continually to see that every one performs his work diligently; and in case of the smallest resistance to any of the regulations, the offender is immediately cast into a solitary cell, to subsist on bread and water till he returns to a proper sense of his behaviour; but the dread all those have of this treatment, who have once experienced it, is such, that it is seldom found necessary to repeat it. The women are kept totally apart from the men, and are employed in a manner suitable to their sex. The labourers all eat together in one large apartment; and regularly, every Sunday, there is divine service, at which all attend. It is the duty of the chaplain to converse at times with the prisoners, and endeavour to reform their minds and principles. The inspectors, when they visit the prison, also do the same; so that when a prisoner is liberated, he goes out, as it were, a new man; he has been habituated to employment, and has received good instructions. The greatest care is also taken to find him employment the moment he quits the place of his confinement. According to the regulations, no person is allowed to visit the prison without permission of the inspectors. The greatest care is also taken to preserve the health of the prisoners, and for those who are sick there are proper apartments and good advice provided. The longest period of confinement is for a rape, which is not to be less than ten years, but not to exceed twenty-one. For high treason, the length of confinement is not to be less than six nor more than twelve years. There are prisons in every county throughout Pennsylvania, but none as yet are established on the same plan as that which has been described. Criminals are frequently sent from other parts of the state to receive punishment in the prison of Philadelphia.

'So well is this gaol conducted, that instead of being an expense, it now annually produces a considerable revenue to the state.' P. 7.

Praise cannot be too liberally bestowed on the Pennsylvani-

ans for this great and fuccefsful effort towards attaining the true ends of criminal juftice. We fear that the interior of moft of the European prifons would exhibit a fhocking contraft to that of Philadelphia. But we hope that our own country will foon ceafe to deferve a reproach grofsly inconfiftent with its civilifation, opulence, and public fpirit. In this department of Britifh police many radical reforms are requifite; and we augur much good from the adoption of the late Mr. Howard's plan of folitary confinement in feveral of our new prifons.

A pleafing defcription of Mount Vernon, the feat of the celebrated Wafhington, is given by our traveller, with fome perfonal particulars relative to that illuftrious champion of the liberty of the new world. In this part of the work, however, there is little that is not already known to the European reader; and we therefore extract a few paffages illuftrative of Trans-Atlantic manners and habits. The accommodations of travellers in Pennfylvania, according to this writer, are not very good.

'The taverns throughout this part of the country are kept by farmers, and they are all very indifferent. If the traveller can procure a few eggs with a little bacon he ought to reft fatisfied; it is twenty to one that a bit of frefh meat is to be had, or any falted meat except pork. Vegetables feem alfo to be very fcarce, and when you do get any, they generally confift of turnips, or turnip tops boiled by way of greens. The bread is heavy and four, though they have as fine flour as any in the world; this is owing to their method of making it; they raife it with what they call *fots*; hops and water boiled together. No dependance is to be placed upon getting a man at thefe taverns to rub down your horfe, or even to give him his food, frequently therefore you will have to do every thing of the kind for yourfelf if you do not travel with a fervant; and indeed, even where men are kept for the purpofe of attending to travellers, which at fome of the taverns is the cafe, they are fo fullen and difobliging that you feel inclined to do every thing with your own hands rather than be indebted to them for their affiftance: they always appear doubtful whether they fhould do any thing for you or not, and to be reafoning within themfelves, whether it is not too great a departure from the rules of equality to take the horfe of another man, and whether it would not be a pleafing fight to fee a gentleman ftrip off his coat, and go to work for himfelf; nor will money make them alter their conduct; civility, as I before faid, is not to be purchafed at any expence in America; neverthelefs the people will pocket your money with the utmoft readinefs, though without thanking you for it. Of all beings on the earth, Americans are the moft interefted and covetous.

'It is fcarcely poffible to go one mile on this road without meeting numbers of waggons paffing and repaffing between the

back parts of the ſtate and Philadelphia. Theſe waggons are commonly drawn by four or five horſes, four of which are yoked in pairs. The waggons are heavy, the horſes ſmall, and the driver unmerciful; the conſequence of which is, that in every team, nearly, there is a horſe either lame or blind. The Pennſylvanians are notorious for the bad care which they take of their horſes. Excepting the night be tempeſtuous, the waggoners never put their horſes under ſhelter, and then it is only under a ſhed; each tavern is uſually provided with a large one for the purpoſe. Market or High-ſtreet, in Philadelphia, the ſtreet by which theſe people come into the town, is always crowded with waggons and horſes, that are left ſtanding there all night. This is to ſave money; the expence of putting them into a ſtable would be too great in the opinion of theſe people. Food for the horſes is always carried in the waggon, and the moment they ſtop they are unyoked, and fed whilſt they are warm. By this treatment half the poor animals are foundered. The horſes are fed out of a large trough carried for the purpoſe, and fixed on the pole of the waggon by means of iron pins.' P. 65.

The following ſcene exhibits ſome American profeſſors of the law in a light nearly as mean and ludicrous as that in which companies of ſtrolling players may frequently be ſeen in England.

'The courts of common pleas, and thoſe of general quarter ſeſſions, were holding when I reached this place [*York*]: I found it difficult, therefore, at firſt, to procure accommodation, but at laſt I got admiſſion in a houſe principally taken up by lawyers. To behold the ſtrange aſſemblage of perſons that was brought together this morning in the one poor apartment which was allotted to all the lodgers, was really a ſubject of diverſion. Here one lawyer had his clients in a corner of the room; there another had his; a third was ſhaving; a fourth powdering his own hair; a fifth noting his brief; and the table ſtanding in the middle of the room, between a clamorous ſet of old men on one ſide, and three or four women in tears on the other. I and the reſt of the company, who were not lawyers, were left to eat our breakfaſt.' P. 73.

From our author's account, the bench diſplays no contraſt of dignity to the bar.

'On entering into the courts a ſtranger is apt to ſmile at the groteſque appearance of the judges who preſide in them, and at their manners on the bench; but this ſmile muſt be ſuppreſſed when it is recollected, that there is no country, perhaps, in the world, where juſtice is more impartially adminiſtered, or more eaſily obtained by thoſe who have been injured. The judges in the country parts of Pennſylvania are no more than plain farmers, who from their infancy have been accuſtomed to little elſe than following the plough.

The laws expreſsly declare that there muſt be, at leaſt, three judges reſident in every county; now as the ſalary allowed is but a mere trifle, no lawyer would accept of the office, which of courſe muſt be filled from amongſt the inhabitants*, who are all in a happy ſtate of mediocrity, and on a perfect equality with each other. The diſtrict judge, however, who preſides in the diſtrict or circuit, has a larger ſalary, and is a man of a different caſt. The diſtrict or circuit conſiſts of at leaſt three, but not more than ſix counties. The county judges, which I have mentioned, are "judges of the court of common pleas, and by virtue of their offices alſo juſtices of oyer and terminer, and general gaol delivery, for the trial of capital and other offenders therein." Any two judges compoſe the court of quarter ſeſſions. Under certain regulations, eſtabliſhed by law, the accuſed party has the power of removing the proceedings into the ſupreme court, which has juriſdiction over every part of the ſtate. This ſhort account of the courts relates only to Pennſylvania: every ſtate in the union has a ſeparate code of laws for itſelf, and a diſtinct judicature.' P. 74.

We are diſpoſed to queſtion whether this ſtrange judicature can be productive of the ſatisfactory impartiality mentioned by Mr. Weld, from the jealouſies and enmities which frequently ariſe between thoſe of ſimilar purſuits, and from the little reſpect with which people in general treat the wiſdom of their neighbours: we think that the adminiſtration of juſtice cannot be better advanced to dignity and perfection than by making judges a ſeparate order of men, and allowing them high rank and reſpectable ſalaries. It is thus that the ſcience of Engliſh juriſprudence has been enabled to boaſt of a Hardwicke, a Mansfield, and other illuſtrious names; and the beſt apology for ſuch a groupe of judges as our author deſcribes, is the infant and agricultural ſtate of ſociety in America.

(To be continued.)

Sermons on practical Subjects, by the late W. Enfield, LL. D.
(Concluded from p. 179.)

THE reſpectable character and literary reputation of the late Dr. Enfield prediſpoſed us to a favourable peruſal of theſe poſthumous diſcourſes; and our expectations, upon the whole, were not diſappointed. Good ſenſe and manly ſentiments are to be found in them, as well as in thoſe which were publiſhed before the author's deceaſe. They diſcover, throughout, traits of genius; they contain the ſentiments of a man who thought

* 'This is alſo the caſe in Philadelphia, where we find practiſing phyſicians and ſurgeons ſitting on the bench as judges in a court of juſtice.'

for himſelf, who had derived much of the knowledge of human nature from his accurate inveſtigation of the paſſions, and who drew from the ſtorehouſe of his own obſervations many of thoſe uſeful reflections upon the principles and motives of human conduct, which are found in theſe volumes. If he do not aim at ſtriking thoughts or original ideas, he ſtill cultivates and poſſeſſes the happy art of applying acknowledged truths to beneficial purpoſes. He knows well how to diſcriminate, and where to draw the line of diſtinction between characters which bear a ſeeming reſemblance, although they differ in their more minute features, and with regard to thoſe ſecret ſprings which actuate the conduct.

In ſublimity of language, he may be ſaid to have failed; but he is not found deficient in that ſmoothneſs of diction and perſpicuity of ſtyle, which have the excellence of enabling his readers to comprehend his meaning with facility, and enter into the ſentiments which he intended to convey.

A prominent feature in theſe diſcourſes, is the amiable and excellent ſpirit which they diſcover, and which ſhows that their author drew the pictures he exhibits of Chriſtian virtues, not only from the precepts and examples which the inſpired pages ſo copiouſly afford, but alſo from the tranſcript of them in his own character. Indeed it appears not only from the teſtimony which his biographer has borne, but from collateral authorities, that Dr. Enfield was a man of great ſuavity of temper and gentleneſs of diſpoſition. His mournful widow is ſaid to have declared, that, during the thirty years in which he lived in great connubial felicity, ſhe never once ſaw him out of temper. If ſome portion of this ſpirit could be tranſfuſed into the hearts and lives of the readers of theſe ſermons, they would find them of more value than the gold of Ophir or the gems of Golconda!

The ſermons contained in the firſt volume (which were reviewed in our number for February laſt), appeared to us to contain a valuable fund of morality; and their language was ſuch as merited encomium.

The diſcourſes comprehended in the two remaining volumes are upon the following ſubjects; the importance of ſocial harmony to the happineſs of life; the value of good intentions; meekneſs; ſenſibility; unexpenſive methods of doing good; animated exertions in all laudable undertakings; decorum of character; univerſal obedience; the true ground of juſtification; the wiſdom of ſuffering rather than ſinning; Chriſt's converſation with a rich young man; the poor widow's mite; the folly of raſh confidence; the characters of the hypocrite and the penitent; the folly of rejecting inſtruction; the criminality of uncharitable judgment in imputing good actions

to bad motives; the parable of the unjuſt ſteward; Chriſt's treatment of the woman taken in adultery; his laſt converſation with his apoſtles before his crucifixion; his laſt diſcourſe to his diſciples; the inſtitution of the Lord's ſupper, &c.

The firſt ſermon of the ſecond volume treats of a ſubject which muſt have been highly congenial to the author's temper and character, viz. *the importance of ſocial harmony to the happineſs of life.* Among other obſervations in that diſcourſe, are theſe:

'That this world is a ſcene of much diſtreſs and miſery; that innumerable evils continually hang over us which we can neither prevent nor foreſee; that hope frequently ends in diſappointment, and pleaſure in diſguſt; are truths which every age and country has anxiouſly repeated, and to which every human heart has borne its ſad teſtimony. Such an impreſſion, indeed, have theſe conſiderations ſometimes made upon perſons of a gloomy and diſcontented temper, that they have been ready to aſk why the Almighty has made man—for what purpoſe a creature, burdened with ſo many imperfections, and expoſed to ſo many calamities, has been called into being?

'To theſe murmurs religion replies, that the preſent life is only a ſmall part of human exiſtence; that this world is merely a place of diſcipline and trial, where, by means of thoſe very ſufferings which are the ſubject of complaint, we are to be fitted for a future ſtate of eternal and ever-increaſing felicity. And this conſideration is undoubtedly, above all others, the moſt effectual to conſole us under the unavoidable evils of humanity, and to vindicate the ways of God to man.' Vol. ii. p. 1.

"How good and how pleaſant," ſays the text, "is it for brethren to dwell together in unity!" intimating, not only that life may be endured, and many of its evils avoided, by ſuch conduct, but that it may become actually and poſitively a ſtate of felicity; a ſentiment which perfectly agrees with the common idea of the benevolent part of mankind, who are ready on every occaſion to exclaim—"What a happy world would this be, if all men loved each other!" In truth, if from the ſum of evil which exiſts in the world we take away thoſe afflictions which men bring upon themſelves by miſconduct, and thoſe which they inflict upon others by the indulgence of the miſchievous paſſions of envy, hatred, malice, and cruelty, ſo little will be left, that the moſt diſcontented man would be aſhamed to put it in competition with the many good things which the bounty of our creator has beſtowed upon us. The inclemencies of winter are overbalanced by the grateful warmth and ſerenity of the other ſeaſons. Years of barrenneſs bear a ſmall proportion to thoſe of fertility. Compared with health, diſeaſe, not the offspring of intemperance, is unfrequent. Storms, hurricanes,

earthquakes, are uncommon occurrences; and after their worst ravages, the smiling face of nature is soon renewed. If, then, to this manifest preponderance of good in the natural world, man should, as he might, add an equal or a greater balance of moral good; if all the rational inhabitants of the earth were heartily to unite in making the most of their situation, and particularly in improving to the best advantage their connexions with each other, there would no longer be any plea for complaining of this world as a barren wilderness, or for supposing, as some have done, that man is on the whole a loser by his elevated rank in the creation.' Vol. ii. p. 4.

In the sermon which recommends animated exertions in laudable undertakings, the subject is introduced in a pleasing manner.

'When our illustrious countryman, the immortal Newton, was asked, "By what means he was enabled to make those rapid and successful advances in science which had astonished the world?" he answered, that if he had, in any respect, done more than others who were engaged in the same researches, it was not so much owing to superior strength of genius as to a habit, which he had early acquired, of close attention and patient thinking. This reply was, doubtless, in some measure, the effect of that modesty which always accompanies extraordinary merit: but, at the same time, it certainly proceeded from an experimental conviction of the advantage which is gained, in any pursuit, by a diligent application and animated exertion of the mental faculties. This great man, though unquestionably indebted to nature for uncommon talents, would never have made those wonderful discoveries and improvements in philosophy which have immortalized his name, had he not given his whole mind and heart to the pursuit of knowledge.' Vol. ii. p. 176.

'In the ordinary affairs of life, who does not see that success very much depends upon the degree of attention and spirit with which they are prosecuted? Let one man, who has made choice of an occupation in life suitable to his abilities and inclinations, and devotes himself with unwearied assiduity to its labours; and another, who has engaged in his profession reluctantly, and rather submits to its offices as a necessary burden than discharges them with pleasure from the hope of distinction, be in all other respects situated alike; there can be no doubt which of these two men will have the fairest prospect of success. The most industrious and spirited attention to business cannot, indeed, in the present state of society, infallibly secure prosperity; but the probabilities are always greatly in its favour. In the pursuit of knowledge of every kind, and in the acquisition of all useful and ornamental arts, it is evident that almost every thing depends upon diligent application and a habit of patient attention. No man ever became a scholar or a phi-

losopher without giving up his mind to his studies, and prosecuting them with ardour. No man ever distinguished himself as a poet or artist who did not feel a considerable degree of enthusiasm in his favourite pursuit, and apply himself to it with a determination to excel. Even in the secondary accomplishments of exterior air and address, excellence cannot be attained without attention. In short, if I were to lay down any one general rule for acquiring distinction and eminence in any profession or pursuit, it should be this—"Be interested in whatever you undertake;" or, in the language of the text—"In every work that you begin, do it with all your heart."

'There is no circumstance in which civilised life has a greater advantage over a savage state than in the superior degree of vigour and activity which it gives to every intellectual faculty. Excepting only when the strong impulses of appetite or passion rouze him to action, the savage remains in torpid indolence, and finds his highest luxury in a total suspension of his active powers. Having been inured to no intellectual exertions, he looks at the objects around him, not with the animated expression of admiration and delight, or with the inquisitive eye of curiosity, but with the vacant gaze of ignorance. Even objects perfectly new and strange can scarcely for a moment attract his attention. It is said, that when the most southern coast of America was first visited by Europeans, the natives, though they had never before seen a ship, expressed no surprise.' Vol. ii. p. 179.

In the discourse on sensibility are some excellent remarks, founded on the preacher's accurate acquaintance with the human heart. After refuting the sophistry of those who, having absorbed their feelings in abstruse speculation, or benumbed them by solitude and inaction, have been desirous of depreciating enjoyments which they are no longer capable of relishing, he proceeds to inquire,—

'Who is the man that is best qualified to contemplate the works of nature with pleasure? It is surely he whose soul is most susceptible of the emotions of admiration and delight from the contemplation of grandeur and beauty! Who is capable of enjoying in perfection the satisfactions of virtuous friendship, the endearments of domestic life, "the dear characters of husband, father, brother," but the man whose bosom glows with every generous sentiment, and is open to every impulse of kindness? Who shall experience the divine consolations of pure devotion, but he who adds to rational opinions concerning the nature and character of the supreme being, sublime conceptions of his greatness, a deep sense of dependence upon his providence, warm feelings of gratitude for his mercies, and a soul which humbly and devoutly resigns its powers and interests to his direction? Where shall true enjoyment reside, if not in the heart, which is the seat of every tender, every generous, every divine sentiment?' Vol. ii. p. 140.

It is proper to remark, that, though these discourses, in their general cast, consist of moral topics and reflections, the author sometimes takes occasion to offer, upon some doctrinal points of religion, sentiments which differ from reputed orthodoxy. He, indeed, rarely indulges in a controversial course of argument, but satisfies himself with advancing assertions, and avowing opinions which, however agreeable they might have been to his auditory, he must have known would be disapproved by many persons of learning and piety. We forbear to point out instances of this kind, in which, we think, the author is too dogmatical, and speaks too contemptuously of sentiments which did not comport with his standard of rationality. We do not think that he excelled in polemic divinity; and we are led to regret, that, in a course of sermons upon subjects professedly practical, he should have quitted his province, and interrupted the pleasure which, doubtless, many will receive from his moral, ingenious, and useful observations. Referring, we suppose, to Dr. Priestley and other modern Socinian writers, he speaks of them as 'the distinguished friends to free inquiry,' in opposition to others whom, with no great liberality, he denominates 'the bigoted advocates for mystery.' In his sermon on the folly of rejecting instruction, he gives the following directions, which, while many will applaud, others may, perhaps, be led to consider as too general and unguarded.

'Knowledge, merely abstract and speculative, can do no harm: knowledge, which admits of a practical application, must be useful. Experience proves this to be the case in all other sciences; why should it not be true in religion? On this important subject, then, be always ready to gather up instruction and information from every quarter. Instead of starting back with affright from all who advance opinions different from those which you have already embraced, listen to their reasonings with attention; give them a candid and impartial examination, and allow them all the weight they ought to have in determining your judgment. Instead of regarding the man who undertakes to correct your opinions in the light of an adversary, consider him as your friend, at least in intention, and rather invite his society, than, like the Gadarenes, beseech him to depart from you. Be assured, that unless the fault be your own, no inconvenience can arise from the intercourse. If the opinions he advances be without foundation, the detection of their weakness and fallacy will only serve to confirm you in the truth. If they be well supported, they ought, at all events, to be adopted. If, after all the information you can obtain upon the subject, it appears to be involved in uncertainty, you will remain in suspense, and wait for new light, and in the mean time you will learn a practical lesson of moderation.' Vol. iii. p. 125.

We have already expreſſed our general approbation of theſe diſcourſes. The obſervations of the preacher upon moral topics are juſt and important; and his reflections are ſuch as appear naturally to reſult from the reſpective ſubjects. Would our limits permit, we could produce a great variety of paſſages which would exhibit this divine in an advantageous point of view; and, were we to make a ſelection, the ſermons on unexpenſive methods of doing good, Nathan's reproof to David, the folly of raſh confidence, the characters of the hypocrite and the penitent, the criminality of uncharitable judgment, the wiſdom of foreſeeing and providing againſt difficulties and dangers, and the folly of ambitious deſires, are, in our eſtimation, amongſt the moſt excellent.

We wiſh not to be conſidered as detracting from the general commendation which we have given, while we remark that the ſermons contained in theſe volumes do not appear to be equally well compoſed, and that there is a degree of languor occaſionally perceptible, which prevents us from conſidering ſeveral of the diſcourſes as ſufficiently animated and impreſſive. The ſtyle alſo is, in ſome inſtances which might be pointed out, too negligent; the paragraphs are ſometimes too long, and the ſentences involved. But, though theſe little inattentions to accuracy and elegance of compoſition are diſcernible in various parts of theſe volumes, we may affirm that, upon the whole, we have ſeldom read more pleaſing diſcourſes.

A General View of the Hiſtory of Switzerland; with a particular Account of the Origin and Accompliſhment of the late Swiſs Revolution. By John Wood, Maſter of the Academy eſtabliſhed at Edinburgh by the Honourable the Board of Truſtees for the Improvement of Arts in Scotland. 8vo. 6s. *Boards.* Cawthorne. 1799.

THE fate of Switzerland naturally excites the curioſity and the compaſſion of every lover of liberty. A country which reſiſted at different times, with ſuch ſucceſs and glory, the arms of Auſtria and France, has fallen an eaſy prey to the new republic. To what cauſe is this reverſe of fortune to be attributed? In the work before us, this queſtion is anſwered; and the five following circumſtances are ſuppoſed to have produced that great event.

'1ſt, The revolution of Geneva in 1782, which occaſioned a general ſpirit of diſaffection among the Genevans, and was the introduction to that revolutionizing ſyſtem which firſt began in that

city in 1789, and afterwards spread with such rapidity through Europe.

'2d, The establishment of a number of societies for the purpose of diffusing literary knowledge.

'3d, The conduct of the government of Berne towards the inhabitants of the Pays de Vaud in 1791.

'4th, Dissensions between the Catholic and Protestant cantons, occasioned by the arts and intrigues of the clergy.

'5th, The want of a proper military establishment in Switzerland, and the change of government in the neighbouring states; the terror of whose arms alone preserved the internal tranquillity of the Swiss cantons.' p. 300.

Of these we may observe, that, though they contributed in some degree to facilitate the entrance of the French into Switzerland, they do not account for the disaffection of the inhabitants of several cantons to their old form of government, or for the want of union in the confederate body. The oligarchy of Berne was of such a nature as could not but disgust a great proportion of its subjects; and yet it had been, at various times, warmly supported by them, and had obtained a great influence over the other cantons. Though the constitution was bad in theory, the exercise of the government was not proportionally oppressive; and the subjects of Berne, with reference to their neighbours, appear to have been in a comparatively happy situation. The influence of this state in the confederacy arose from the extent of its territory and its internal strength. The dissensions between the catholics and protestants do not seem to have had much effect in weakening the political union; for, in several cantons, the rights of both parties were well ascertained; and in others, as in Zurich and Berne, the ascendency was on the protestant side. The union had been gradually weakened by the natural course of events, which must change any ill-contrived system; and the internal constitutions of the respective cantons, which subsisted only from former reputation, were crumbling away from an influx of commerce and knowledge. If the French revolution had not taken place, the Swiss might for a few years longer have retained their constitution; but so bad was its structure, that it must have fallen to pieces from its own defects.

Two circumstances will show this in a striking point of view. The two most powerful cantons, Berne and Zurich, were oligarchies—the former an oligarchy of birth, the latter from election. An individual in these cantons, whatever might be his learning, talents, or opulence, if he did not, in Berne, belong to one of the reigning families, or, in the territory of Zurich, was not a citizen of the latter place, he could

not riſe to the honours of the ſtate. In England, a great body of inhabitants have votes for their repreſentatives in parliament, and thus acquire ſome political influence: but this was not the caſe in the cantons which we have mentioned. A few families in Berne ſhared among themſelves all the power of the ſtate; and the citizens of Zurich arrogated the command of all the country around them. From theſe excluſive privileges aroſe popular jealouſies. A ſhort paragraph exhibits the ſtate of parties in one of the cantons.

'In the canton of Zuric the inhabitants of the territory were Jacobins, while the greateſt part of the citizens of the town were friendly to their old conſtitution. The former, therefore, in a conſiderable body, advanced to the gates of the city, having the enſigns of liberty diſplayed before them. Theſe men, joined by the diſaffected inhabitants within the town, ſubdued the loyaliſts after a ſhort reſiſtance.' P. 409.

Jacobiniſm, we think, had leſs concern in this inſtance than the natural deſire of ſhaking off a diſhonourable yoke.

Our author has given a true picture of the ſtate of Berne.

'The government of Berne was an ariſtocracy of the worſt form, and only ſupported itſelf by the impartiality of its laws and the mildneſs of its adminiſtration. The peaſantry, who conſtituted the greateſt part of the people, enjoyed particularly the favour and protection of the ſtate. The peaceful labourer of the field was eaſy in his circumſtances, ſecure in his property, and as happy as the quiet enjoyment of his own could make him: but the maxims of policy adopted, checked the enterpriſing manufacturer and the induſtrious citizen of the town, who were better informed, and had nicer feelings. The total want of commerce prevented the means of intrigue, dried up every ſource of wealth, and reduced the inhabitants to a perfect equality in point of fortune. They beheld not the melancholy extremes of opulence and miſery, though they felt, in the ſtrongeſt degree, both the pride of family, and the invidious diſtinction of patrician rank. Learning was univerſally diſcouraged: and thoſe ſpirits, to whoſe perpetual ferment both the ſweets of liberty and the evils of licentiouſneſs owe their exiſtence, ſeemed, before the late revolution, to be lulled into a perfect ſtate of tranquillity, and to yield a ready obedience to a magiſtracy, who exerciſed in all public affairs a power unlimited and without control.' P. 116.

'Theſe are the general outlines of what the government of this canton was. The imperfections of its conſtitution are evidently

many, not to mention the whole body of the people that were excluded from any hopes of a ſhare in public affairs. Of three hundred noble families that claimed a right, not more than eighty abſolutely enjoyed it; and theſe, having the power of election, were much more likely to degenerate into an oligarchy, than approach in the leaſt towards a democracy. None but a citizen of Berne could entertain the moſt diſtant hopes of an employment; for all others were debarred from carrying on trade of any kind in the town. Even civil and criminal juſtice were differently executed with reſpect to them. It was not, therefore, in the nature of the government, but in the virtue or prudence of the governing power, that the happineſs of the people conſiſted. The wiſe and moderate ſpirit of the former, by gaining the affections of the latter, ſtrengthened the barriers of their own authority, and erected the image of a free conſtitution on the baſis of political deſpotiſm.' P. 128.

A good account alſo is given of the confederacy. With regard to the want of a ſtanding army for its defence, we may obſerve, that it was remedied by the great pains taken to train up every one to the defence of the country.

'As the great object of the Helvetic confederacy was to ſupport their independence, and to maintain a perfect neutrality in the conteſts of the neighbouring powers, the preſervation of theſe illuſtrated the neceſſity of a military eſtabliſhment, which ſhould be regulated according to the plan of defence agreed upon in 1668: for other nations were poſſeſſed of ſtanding armies; and a force of that nature could not be oppoſed by troops leſs regular and leſs diſciplined. But the creation of a ſtanding force was a meaſure too unconſtitutional for a free government: it excited the fears and alarmed the ſpirit of a people jealous of their privileges. They therefore deviſed a ſcheme which ſhould form a regular army with the leaſt poſſible inconvenience to liberty. The youth were diligently trained to martial exerciſes, ſuch as running, wreſtling, and ſhooting with the croſs-bow and the muſket; the whole people were enrolled and regularly exerciſed in their reſpective militia; and a conſiderable number of well diſciplined troops were always employed in foreign ſervice. By theſe means they were capable of collecting a body of forces, which would prove formidable to any enemy who invaded their country or attacked their liberties.' P. 100.

The hiſtory of the revolution is not enriched with new facts, or recommended by excellence of compoſition. The ſtyle is, in many parts, very incorrect; and we preſume that, as the motive for publication was to gratify preſent curioſity, the writer could not afford the time required by Horace for works that will ſtand the teſt of criticiſm. The precept, however, is as proper for the hiſtorian as for the poet.

Tranſactions of the Society inſtituted at London, for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; with the Premiums offered in the Year 1798. *Vol. XVI.* 8*vo.* 5*s. Boards.* Robſon. 1798.

THE labours of this ſociety are continued with great aſſiduity, and with a judicious diſcrimination of objects. Among the new rewards offered, we obſerve one for the diſcovery of a red pigment for oil and water colours, equal in brilliancy and ſuperior in durability to any hitherto uſed. This will be highly important to artiſts, as their reds are ſeldom durable. The premium for procuring oil from porpoiſes may be of double ſervice; for, as oil is procured with difficulty from the ſouthern hemiſphere, theſe animals may ſupply it, and numerous tribes of fiſh may be preſerved from their depredations. A premium for the diſcovery of a quarry, for the ſupply of mill-ſtones, which we have hitherto procured from France only, is highly commendable.

The various papers lately ſubmitted to the ſociety are not very important. From one of them we find that Mr. Sneyd's plantation of larches is extenſive and promiſing. It alſo appears, that the marquis of Bath has been a conſiderable planter, having for twenty years planted fifty thouſand trees annually, on the average. The Scotch fir, which is undoubtedly the yellow deal, grows on his eſtate to three feet in diameter, and, at the age of thirty years, the trees are worth a ſhilling per foot: oaks of the ſame age are not worth more than ninepence, and beeches not above ſix-pence. The chief advantage, however, of the Scotch fir is that it will grow on heathy and barren lands, where no other tree will flouriſh.

Mr. Philips's paper on the plantation of oſiers; Mr. Harper's obſervations on the comparative advantages of drill and broadcaſt; Mr. Webſter's claim for having drilled not leſs than ten acres, with beans, and planted the land, the ſame year, with wheat; that of Mr. Exter for the cultivation of turneps as food for ſtock; and Mr. Harper's obſervations on the culture of potatoes; are all of ſome value. Mr. Jones continues ſanguine in his expectations of ſuperſeding the foreign rhubarb by that of Engliſh growth. Mr. Peart's paper, relative to his claim of the premium for cultivating waſte land, contains various obſervations and accounts of ſome importance. We wiſh that his example may be more diligently followed.

Mr. Sneyd, having received ſome ſeeds by accident, in a good ſtate, with raiſins, found that this method of packing them in abſorbent paper, with raiſins or moiſt ſugar, was the moſt advantageous mode of conveyance. Mr. Brown's eaſy method of converting weeds and other vegetable matter into

manure, deserves to be more generally known; and, as his account is not long, we will transcribe it.

'The mode of making it is as simple as, I trust, it will be found productive. It is nothing more than green vegetable matter, decomposed by quick or fresh-burnt lime. A layer of the vegetable matter about a foot thick, then a very thin layer of lime, beat small, and so on; first vegetable, then lime, alternately. After it has been put together a few hours, the decomposition will begin to take place; and unless prevented, either by a few sods, or a forkfull of the vegetables at hand, it will break out into a blaze, which must at all events be prevented. In about twenty-four hours the process will be complete, when you will have a quantity of ashes ready to lay on your land at any time you wish. Any and all sorts of vegetables, if used green, will answer the purpose; say weeds of every description. They will doubly serve the farmer, as they will not only be got at a small expence, but will in time render his farm more valuable, by being deprived of all noisome weeds.

'But if this composition answers the purpose, as I flatter myself it will, a very short time will see almost every weed destroyed, which supposing to be the case, I have made my calculations with clover, grown for the purpose; for instance, I will take one acre of clover, which at one cutting will produce from fourteen to eighteen tons of green vegetable matter, and about three tons of lime; this, when decomposed by the above process, will yield ashes sufficient to manure four acres, the value of which I estimate at something under four pounds; the clover, according to the value of land here, I will say two pounds, which, take the average of the kingdom, is too much. The lime I will also say two pounds; but that will vary, according to the distance it is to be fetched. Take them together, I think will be about the average value.' P. 269.

Mr. Davis has communicated an account of the Indian method of cultivating poppies and procuring opium, with a description of the instrument used for making an incision on the head of the poppy.

Mr. Sheldrake's dissertation on painting in oil, in a manner similar to that which was practised in the ancient Venetian school, is the first in the class of polite arts; and it appears to be ingenious, though there are several positions which professional painters will not readily admit.

'I once' (he says) 'asked sir Joshua Reynolds, by what circumstances in the management of a picture he thought the harmony of colouring was to be produced? He replied, an unity of light and an unity of shadow should pervade the whole. He explained to me the difficulty of reducing the various colours of all the objects that may be included in a picture, and the various modifications of those colours, to the simple, harmonious state he described, and il-

luftrated what he had faid by this fimile. " A picture, to poffefs harmony of colouring, fhould look as if it was painted with one colour (fuppofe umber and white), and, when the chiaro-ofcuro was complete, the colour of each object fhould be glazed over it."

' This obfervation, from fuch authority, was impreffed with peculiar force on my mind; and if I can retrace its operations on a fubject which has fo long engaged my attention, I fhould fay fir Jofhua's obfervation was the clue that guided me through all my experiments, and, I hope, will enable me to prove, that the beautiful and fimple practice which he fuggefted as a fimile, was literally the practice of that fchool upon whofe works his ideas of colouring were founded. At the fame time I may obferve, that the fact feems to have eluded his obfervation, or he would not have ufed it as a comparifon to fimplify his defcription of a practice which he thought both difficult and complex.' P. 283.

We have copied this anecdote as curious, and as explanatory of the author's principle, of which in this place we cannot, with advantage, give a more particular account. The following fact, however, is too important in the theory of colours to be wholly overlooked.

' The artift will remark that, in defcribing the whole of the Venetian method of painting, I have faid nothing of the manner of producing thofe demi-tints which conduce fo much to the brilliancy of a picture, which are fo difficult to execute, and in which he moft frequently fails. Thofe tints are, in the ordinary modes of painting, produced by the mixture of black, grey, blue, or brown (according to the judgment of the artift), with the local colours of the objects. It is thefe tints which, from their being made with fuch colours, it is difficult to get clear, and which never are fo clear in any other as in the Venetian, and in fome of the Flemifh pictures, which are painted upon analogous principles. The fact is, that thofe painters produced all fuch tints without the admixture of any colour to reprefent them, and by a method fo like that by which they are produced in nature, that this circumftance alone enfures a degree of brightnefs to their colours, and of harmony to their fhadows, that it is perhaps impoffible to produce, in an equal degree, by any other mode of painting.

' It is a fingular fact, which I have not fkill in phyfics to be able to account for, though by numerous experiments I have afcertained beyond contradiction, that if upon any degree of brown, between the deepeft and the lighteft brown yellow, we paint pure white, in gradations, from the folid body to the lighteft tint that can be laid on, all the tints between the folid white and the ground will appear to be grey, intenfe in proportion to the depth of the ground, and the thinnefs of the white laid upon it. But in every cafe all the tints laid upon one ground will harmonize with each

other, and form one connected chain (if I may use the expression), which will perfectly unite the highest light with the darkest shade.

'If then we examine the component substances of a Venetian picture, we shall find the lighter parts consist only of white, to represent the light; and of the local colours of the objects it represents, the demi-tints are imitated by an appearance almost as deceptive as the similar appearances in nature: but in every other method of painting, these demi-tints are produced by mixing some dusky colour with the local colours and the light. The comparison of these methods will afford a demonstrative reason why the Venetian must be brighter than any other mode of painting.' P. 287.

In the class of mechanics, there are plates, with descriptions, of Mr. Jee's improved mangle, of Mr. Prior's improved, detached escapement for watches, and of a machine for drawing bolts in and out of ships, invented by captain William Bolton.

In the papers on colonies and trade, are accounts of some of the most valuable plants in his majesty's botanical garden of St. Vincent. The Otaheite bread-fruit tree flourishes luxuriantly; and there are in the same garden two plants of the East-Indian bread-fruit; but these prove an inferior kind and a bad substitute. The cinnamon trees also flourish, and the clove trees are progressive.

The last paper is a letter from M. Sievers, of Bauenhoff, in Livonia. It is the production of garrulous old age, but is replete with mild benevolence and good sense. Even on the shores of the Baltic, the silk-worm may be bred with advantage. The *white*-mulberry tree is, in our author's opinion, the only advantageous food of the animal; and it will certainly grow in England and Wales, and even so far north as Edinburgh: the seeds should be sown in plain but light garden land, rather sandy, without dung; and, in general, the tree is most advantageously propagated from seed. The worms do not require sun-shine, but only a temperate and broken light, with great cleanliness. Smoke, damp, and lightning, are known to be highly injurious. M. Sievers also mentions the asclepias Syriaca, which produces a kind of silk: if it be spun with cotton, a silky stuff is the produce, of which there is a manufactory in Upper Silesia. The Siberian mountain pine or cedar, the Archangel larch tree, the Weymouth pine, and some other trees, are recommended to the notice of the society, as possessing valuable qualities, particularly for naval purposes.

Lists of the rewards of agriculture, of presents to the society, of models and machines received since the last publication, and of officers and contributing members, conclude the volume.

An Introduction to Arithmetic and Algebra; Vol. II. By Thomas Manning. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1798.

IN this volume, as in the former*, the author adheres to his original plan of ſuffering no demonſtrable propoſition to paſs without a demonſtration: conſequently, though always ingenious, he is ſometimes tedious; and beginners, by having too much explained, are in ſome danger of riſing with obſcure ideas. The doctrine of proportion is exhibited in the cleareſt light. We were pleaſed with the remarks on Euclid's definition of proportionals; and wiſhing, as we do, that the fifth book may be ſtudied by all who aim at any proficiency in ſcience, we adviſe thoſe who object to that book to conſider Mr. Manning's judgment concerning the diſputes which it has occaſioned.

'These diſputes ariſe in a great meaſure from this circumſtance: Logicians, not converſant with the really exiſting properties of magnitudes, enter upon the ſubject with preconceived † popular notions of proportionality, and finding at the very threſhold a definition, whoſe uſe they know not, and which ſeems to them to render obſcure, what they conſider as a well known property, they conclude it to be at leaſt an unneceſſary bar to the attainment of ſcience, and vainly employ their logic to overturn its authority. Whereas, if they would but firſt examine into the properties of magnitudes, they would be led of themſelves to diſcern the utility of ſuch a definition, and to ſee how totally from the purpoſe (not to ſay unmeaning) are all their objections.' P. 87.

We have known many perſons who exclude the fifth book from their ſyſtem of inſtruction, and ſubſtitute in its ſtead what they call a more familiar ſyſtem of ratios; but their pupils in general find more difficulty in maſtering the latter than in penetrating the ſuppoſed obſcurity of Euclid, and, at the concluſion, feel themſelves under the neceſſity of recurring to their old teacher for clear ideas.

We find from this work, that the diſpute on negative quan-

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* See our XXth Vol. New Arr. p. 157.

† 'Incommenſurability is a property of magnitudes totally unknown to the generality of thoſe, who are unconverſant with mathematical demonſtration. If ſuch be aſked whether the ſide and diagonal of one ſquare be in the ſame proportion as the ſide and diagonal of another, they will anſwer in the affirmative: But if more cloſely examined as to what they mean by proportionality, their explanation will ſhew that they are not aware that the ſide and diagonal of a ſquare have no common meaſure whatſoever. For, as Ariſtotle obſerves, "it ſeems ſtrange to the many that the greater of two things of the ſame "kind cannot be exhauſted by ſome *very ſmall* meaſure of the leſs." Plato ſeverely reproaches the maſs of his countrymen for their erroneous notions on this ſubject, lamenting their ignorance of ſo common a property, as ſhameful, and more fit for brute beaſts than rational men.'

tities ſtill ſubſiſts at Cambridge; but they are not defended with the zeal which was formerly diſplayed in their ſupport. We obſerve, that Mr. Manning makes a ſort of apology for the uſe of the word *ſubtraction*, when a ſmaller quantity is to be taken from a greater.

'As the word *ſubtraction* is here uſed in its moſt extended ſenſe, generally to call this reſult the remainder would in ſome caſes be inconſiſtent with the uſual meaning of words. Thus if — 4 be ſubtracted from 1, the reſult, 5, is not properly a remainder.' P. 177.

He is by no means prepared to go ſo far as ſome mathematicians of his univerſity, who reject every attempt to ſubtract a ſmaller from a greater quantity, and all terms where this attempt is made; and he ſeems to be perplexed in reducing impoſſible quantities to the general rules. Thus, according to a rule given by him, $\sqrt{-a} \times \sqrt{-b}$ becomes $\sqrt{-a \times -b}$, that is $\sqrt{ab}$, when, according to the common ſyſtem which he vindicates, it ought to be $-\sqrt{ab}$. We are not ſatisfied with the mode of overcoming this difficulty, which we will give in the author's words:

'The reaſon of this exception ſeems to have been miſunderſtood.—In order to diſcover it, we are not to make any inquiry into the ſuppoſed abſtract nature of negative and impoſſible quantities, nor argue for and againſt the rule by a *reductio ad abſurdum* derived from the application of other algebraic rules; becauſe thoſe arguments which are true when applied to real magnitudes, may have no meaning whatever when applied to imaginary quantities. The whole matter may be reduced to this—If we change real equations by the application of certain ſymbols, thereby producing equations of no direct meaning, and then by reverſe operations produce real equations again, theſe laſt equations muſt neceſſarily be true; but there can be no poſſible method of proving (nor does it always happen) that an imaginary equation, introduced by the operation of one rule, may be reduced to a real *true* equation by the operation of another. Now impoſſible quantities are introduced by placing the ſymbol $\sqrt{}$ over negative quantities; therefore we cannot be ſure of not introducing error, if we reduce them to poſſible quantities any other way than by ſquaring, i. e. by taking away the radical ſign.' P. 211.

We confeſs ourſelves totally at a loſs to make this diſtinction in arguments; and, in a ſcience ſo clear as the mathematics, we ought to know the grounds for applying or rejecting general rules. Thus it might be requiſite to multiply both ſides of an equation by $\sqrt{a-b}$; and, in conſequence, we obtain on one ſide this term $\sqrt{a^2 - 3ab + 2b^2}$ by multiplying $\sqrt{a-b}$

into $\sqrt{a-2b}$. The condition of the problem in one caſe demands that *a* ſhould become nothing; and conſequently our term $\sqrt{a^2-3ab+2b^2}$ becomes $\sqrt{2b^2}$ or $b\sqrt{2}$. The reſult muſt be allowed by the rules in this work; but if in the ſolution of the problem we ſhould take peculiar care that *a* was nothing, and multiply both ſides by $\sqrt{-b}$, then we ſhould have on one ſide $\sqrt{-b} \times \sqrt{-2b}$, which is not allowed to be $\sqrt{2b^2}$ or $b\sqrt{2}$. Hence it is evidently requiſite to ſtate clear reaſons for theſe different reſults, and give ſome rule which may prevent a learner from falling into error. An attempt is made by our author; and a good one it is; but it labours under the uſual difficulties attending this ſubject, and is above the comprehenſion of a learner. Indeed, the writer ſeems aware of this, and is almoſt tempted to reject his whole proceſs.

'Theſe impoſſible quantities are found ſometimes to expedite demonſtrations, but in the opinion of ſome excellent mathematicians, the diſguſting jargon and air of myſtery they introduce into mathematics, together with the confuſion of ideas to which they give riſe, are by no means compenſated by their utility.' P. 213.

He comes, however, to a concluſion in which all mathematicians agree with him:

'In one word, the mathematician ought to have no further anxiety about *negative quantities*, than to be able ſtrictly to demonſtrate that the concluſions he obtains by their means muſt *neceſſarily* be true:—then whether they are to be employed or not, becomes merely a queſtion of expediency.' P. 216.

Thus the conteſt may be brought to a ſpeedy iſſue; but Mr. Manning ſhould recollect, that on the one hand the truth of the concluſions by negative quantities is diſallowed, and the expediency of changing ſigns is allowed; and it muſt fall to his lot to prove the truth of the concluſions; a taſk which, from the ſpecimen now given, we are confident that he will execute with credit to himſelf and utility to the public.

The Count of Burgundy, a Play; in four Acts; by Auguſtus von Kotzebue, Poet Laureat and Director of the Imperial Theatre at Vienna. Tranſlated from the genuine German Edition by Anne Plumptre, Tranſlator of Kotzebue's Natural Son. 8*vo.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Phillips. 1798.

THE preſent play differs materially from any compoſition of Kotzebue which has yet been introduced to the Engliſh

reader; it is a tale of romance not calculated to excite any ſtrong emotion, but to intereſt and delight. It thus opens:

'HENRY.

'And the banners ſtreaming
In the air around,
And the weapons claſhing,
As the ſhrill-horns ſound.

'*Peter.* You ſeem much pleaſed with that ſong.

'*Henry.* Yes, father.

'*Peter.* You ſing it with much greater pleaſure than your matins.

'*Henry.* Much greater.

'*Peter.* (*ſmiling*) Have you no fear of that being ſinful?

'*Henry.* No, father. I cannot ſuppoſe it ſinful. Why the ſong is as great a favourite of your's as of mine.

'*Peter.* How came you by that idea?

'*Henry.* If you ſing a HORA, your countenance is caſt down, and your eyes look melancholy; but when you ſing the battle-ſong at Morgarten, or the ſong of victory at Sempach, your cheeks glow, and your eyes ſparkle like the tapers before the holy virgin.

'*Peter.* You have been very obſervant.

'*Henry.* And, father, you have a hymn about the ſword of juſtice and armour of faith, and you are more fond of ſinging that than any other hymn, becauſe of the ſword and armour being introduced.

'*Peter.* (*ſmiling*) The rogue!

'*Henry.* A ſword is a noble thing indeed—as to the armour, that may well be diſpenſed with.

'*Peter.* What do you mean, brave youth?

'*Henry.* Was the chevalier Erlach in armour when he fought at Donnerbuhel? (*He flouriſhes his axe above his head.*) Ha! methinks I hear the bugle-horns ſound!

'*Peter.* And the Swiſs at Morgarten—they wore linen frocks.

'*Henry.* True, father—and the fifty exiles, when they hear of the dangers of their native country——

'*Peter.* And come and entreat only for permiſſion to ſhed their blood upon the borders——

'*Henry.* How they roll and fling great ſtones upon the knights and lords——

'*Peter.* Do you not remember, alſo, Rudolph von Erlach at Laupen?

'*Henry.* How could I forget him! I ſee him now bearing the ſtandard of the town of Bern—I hear him call, "*my friends, the victory is ours!*"—There he falls upon the enemy with a troop of choſen young men!—Young men, father!—Ah, I was not among them!

'*Peter.* (*laying aside his work and rising up eagerly*) But all these were nothing compared with Arnold of Winkelried.

'*Henry.* Aye, father! As at Sempach he bid defiance to the forest of spears——

'*Peter.* And exclaimed to his companions, "*I will force you a passage!*"

'*Henry.* "*Take my wife and child into your protection!*"

'*Peter.* How he seized the pikes in his arms!

'*Henry.* And squeezed them to his breast——

'*Peter.* The confederates rush over his dead body—

'*Henry.* The enemy presses upon the rear——

'*Peter.* The knights are trampled to death in their armour!

'*Henry.* There lies the standard of Tyrol——

'*Peter.* Here the banner of Austria——

'*Henry.* Duke Leopold falls!—

'*Peter.* They fly!——

'*Henry.* Huzza! they fly!——

'*Peter.* (*checking himself*) You rogue! Whither are you enticing an old man?—Go, go, cut wood, and leave me to mend my basket quietly. (*He sits down again.*)

'*Henry.* (*slinks back to his work*) I had almost as lief lay my bones in the charnel-house at Murten.

'*Peter.* What are you muttering there, boy?

'*Henry.* Should I meet Tell and Stauffach hereafter, and they should ask, "*Who art thou?*"—I must answer, "*A Swiss.*"—"*And what exploit hast thou performed worthy of a Swiss?*"——"*Taught marmots to dance.*"

'*Peter.* Who tells thee that thou art a Swiss?

'*Henry.* My heart—my thirst for glory!

'*Peter.* Have patience, my son! Your hour will come.

'*Henry.* A lingering hour—slow in its progress as old Gertrude herself. I have an earnest wish to run and meet it half-way.

'*Peter.* Look at the apples on this tree; are they ripe?

'*Henry.* Not yet, but they will be soon.

'*Peter.* Sweet fruit to those who can wait for them.

'*Henry.* Why do you fan a flame in my bosom, which can find no nourishment in this wilderness; and which, therefore, only consumes me?—Why do you tell me so frequently of battles and tournaments, that knights and coursers are by day and night constantly dancing before my eyes?—As often as I hear our old horse neigh in the stable, I stretch forth my hand to seize a lance, but lay hold only on a pater-noster.—As often as the watchman in the tower blows his horn, I catch at a sword, but only wield a hatchet. I never read of any illustrious action, but the blood rushes to my heart, and the water to my eyes. I sigh to clasp to my breast every brave knight whose name I see on record, and would gladly cleave the scull of every scoundrel with a battle-axe.

'*Peter.* All this is as I wish.

'*Henry.* But wherefore, and to what purpofe is all this?—Have you inftructed me in fo many branches of knowledge, only to fing the herdfman's fong with our peafants?—When a falcon is fufficiently trained for the chace, he muft no longer be kept in the cage.

'*Peter.* As long as he has the hood over his eyes, he is ftill too young to be brought into action.

'*Henry.* Tell me—How old am I?

'*Peter.* You are turned of eighteen years.

'*Henry.* Look here, father. *(He cleaves a block with one ftroke.)* How old was the youth who aimed this ftroke? Do you think the fcull of an enemy is harder to cleave than the trunk of an oak?' P. 5.

Henry is attached to Elizabeth, the daughter of the chevalier Cuno von Hallwyl. Kotzebue is fond of defcribing the loves of childhood; and he never omits an opportunity. Love makes Henry almoft contented with obfcurity; and he does not quit the hermitage without reluctance, when he is led to claim his inheritance as count of Burgundy. The firft ufe of his power is to demand Elizabeth in marriage. But this lady has been expofed, in the mean time, to a fevere trial: fhe has been promifed to the chevalier Walter von Blonay, her father's friend. She behaves to him with her characteriftic franknefs.

'*Walter.* You know, dear lady, for what purpofe I came hither.

'*Elizabeth.* Yes, my father has informed me of it.

'*Walter.* I would your heart had anticipated the intelligence.

'*Elizabeth.* So my father wifhes.

'*Walter.* I am, indeed, above forty years old; I cannot win you by youthful attractions, neither is my love a blazing flame, but rather a genial, equal, warmth—no brittle tinfel, but a durable compound of faith and truth. My blood is no longer all fermentation, I am a ftranger to humours and caprices, and am the fame tomorrow as to-day, honeft, without varnifh. More I cannot fay.—Now tell me your fentiments.

'*Elizabeth.* You are a worthy man, I cannot deceive you.

'*Walter.* Your eyes fpeak but too plainly: you could not deceive even a villain.

'*Elizabeth.* If my repofe—if your own repofe be dear to you, take me not as a wife.

Walter. Take you!—No, I would have you *give* yourfelf to me as a wife.

'*Elizabeth.* That I cannot do.

'*Walter.* *(afide)* I thought as much.

'*Elizabeth.* My father will compel——

'*Walter.* That he fhall not.

'*Elizabeth.* Forgive me!

'*Walter.* Yet, tell me, how have I deserved your hatred?

'*Elizabeth.* I hate no man, much less you; I love all men, and you above many.

'*Walter.* But, notwithstanding——

'*Elizabeth.* My wish is to retire into a convent.

'*Walter.* Oh, do not take so rash a step!—However small may be my worth, you will still be happier in my castle, than in a convent.

'*Elizabeth.* I am bound by a vow.

'*Walter.* To whom?

'*Elizabeth.* To St. Agatha.

'*Walter.* Look me in the face! Is what you now say true?

'*Elizabeth.* (*with hesitation*) No!—it is—not true.

'*Walter.* A vow may, indeed, bind you, but not to St. Agatha? Am I not right in my conjectures, dear lady?

'*Elizabeth.* I implore your compassion.

'*Walter.* I know not which of us has most need of compassion—Sooner could I resign you to the cold bosom of religion, than to the arms of a youth, who will be so truly worthy of envy.—With me, I see, it is all over—My soothing dreams farewell!—Instead of a beloved wife, I must be content with the chaplain for my companion—instead of the cries of children, I must be satisfied with listening to the yelling of my hounds.—Walter! Walter! what intoxication was thine!—Had'st thou not wasted the most valuable years of thy life in a pilgrimage to the holy sepulchre, thou mightest now have been the husband of a wife, who would have strewed *thy* sepulchre with flowers.—But thou art rightly served!—Why didst thou seek in Palestine that happiness, which love can bestow in every clime?

'*Elizabeth.* Dear chevalier!—It would give me so much pleasure to see you happy——

'*Walter.* Yes, if I can be so without you:—is it not true?

'*Elizabeth.* I hear my father!—Ah, he will be so angry!' P. 68.

The father enters, and chides Elizabeth.

'*Walter.* No persuasion, chevalier. I see, with pleasure, the hop twine itself voluntarily round the elm; but I cannot endure to see it bound by man's hands.

'*Cuno.* Pooh! pooh! A little compulsion at first, and it soon becomes natural.—Elizabeth, prepare yourself—On All-hallows day, you are to be united to this worthy man.

'*Elizabeth.* Father, I cannot!—Let me retire into a convent!

'*Cuno.* Into a convent!—Do you mean that seriously?

'*Elizabeth.* Yes, indeed, father!—And the sooner the better. —There will I pray for you.

'*Cuno.* What signify your prayers to me?—He who will not

act piously, has recourse to praying. I am old and weak, I have no other support, no other joy, but you!—And can you then leave me?—As I wept by the death-bed of your mother, as I sobbed out, "*Who will nurse me in my old age?*"—the angel opened her eyes once more, smiled, pointed to you—and expired!

'*Elizabeth. (falls weeping upon his neck)* My father! Oh, my dear father!

'*Cuno.* I relied upon the inspiration of an expiring saint.—To see thee grow up, was my only consolation; and as I felt my strength decay, I always said within myself, "*She will be my nurse, she and my grand-children—when lamed by the gout or rheumatism, and unable to raise the spoon to my mouth, by them I shall be fed, by her and my grand-children.*"

'*Elizabeth. (caressing him)* Father!—dear father!

'*Cuno.* When, on account of my fidelity to my liege-lord, the count of Greyerz, I was put under the ban of the empire—when my finest castles were demolished and rased—when I was deprived of all my possessions—I thought within myself—the will of heaven be done—my Elizabeth is still spared to me, and should she but meet with a worthy and wealthy husband, then will I go and live with her; and she will take care, that in my declining years I shall want for nothing.—But, alas, poor old man! my Elizabeth prefers entering into a convent, and will satisfy her conscience with praying, that the saints may assist that father, whom she herself deserts.—Go, then, go—Gertrude will close my dying eyes. *(He weeps.)*

'*Elizabeth. (violently agitated)* Father, you weep!—*(she turns hastily to Walter)* Chevalier, I am your wife!

'*Walter.* I ought not to take advantage of such exquisite sensibility—Yet the feelings which lead you into my arms, are so noble, so pious, that I must draw from them sweet forebodings for my future happiness—If such the daughter, what must be the wife!

'*Cuno. (clasping her eagerly in his arms)* She is—she is my daughter!—The blessing of a dead mother, and a living father's gratitude, shall accompany her to her new abode; and if heaven nobly rewards filial piety, it will grant her children like herself.

'*Elizabeth.* Your tears, and the last smiles of a dying mother, shall be ever present to me.

Walter. (taking a ring from his finger) May I present this ring———

Cuno. Give it me, my son! *(He takes the ring, puts it on Elizabeth's trembling finger, and then unites their hands.)* The blessing of heaven rest upon you, and may your descendants flourish to the latest generations!' P. 70.

At this instant, the ambassador of the count of Burgundy arrives to demand Elizabeth. Henry is among the train disguised. Elizabeth gives her hand to Walter, and desires the ambassador to tell his lord that she is betrothed. Henry then

discovers himself. She immediately points to Walter, exclaiming, 'Father—for the love of God!—I cannot be that man's wife!' Walter honourably resigns her; and the drama concludes as she is hailed countess of Burgundy.

To intricacy of plot and stage developement this piece has no claim; but it is an interesting tale, full of feeling, full of genius.

Tracts relating to Natural History. By James Edward Smith, M.D. F.R.S. &c. President of the Linnæan Society. 8vo. 7s. Boards. White. 1798.

DR. Smith has here collected some of his early, and some of his miscellaneous works. Among these are three articles from the Analytical Review. We should not have noticed them particularly, for they contain nothing very important, if we had not observed the following remarks in the preface.

'They are now reprinted merely to shew all I have composed, or ever mean to publish, in this way. It appears to me that an author who is known should never publish anonymously upon scientific subjects. It is wasting his information and his authority. For matters of fact, the world has a right to know whom it may trust; and as to matters of opinion, a man ought to advance none that he cannot or dares not defend; at least upon subjects where, happily for truth, there is nothing to be got by opposing him.' P. ix.

These arguments do not appear to us to be satisfactory. We do not think that an author, who is *otherwise* known, 'wastes his information and authority' by writing in a periodical work. He seems to disseminate both more extensively; and Dr. Smith allows, that some of these articles were written to communicate a more general knowledge of the merits of the respective works. In these, therefore, he did not consider himself as wasting his information. Whether his 'authority' may be lost, depends on the credit of the journal; for the person is seldom known. When an author, in a respectable publication of that kind, hazards any assertion or opinion which may be controverted, he knows that, in reality, he rests on the credit of the work; and, if he should be challenged to a support of the positions, he is expected to defend himself. We have seen the Critical Review quoted in many foreign publications as an authority, though without the name of a writer; and we have seen its opinions or assertions doubted. In the latter case, when the subject has recurred, we have enforced our sentiments; and a respectful attention has been paid to our defence. How then can the information be wasted or the autho-

rity loſt? and how are opinions advanced, that cannot be defended? There certainly are ſome objections, particularly in the caſe of a man of ſcience and information, to an engagement in the taſk of writing for ſuch a work; and one, which may be thought the ſtrongeſt, is, that his opinions are thus publiſhed, and may be adopted by others, without adding to his fame or emolument; but he may, at any time, throw off the maſk, and claim the merit of his own productions. Men of the higheſt credit, therefore, have been induced to become reviewers; and they have afterwards owned their ſhare in ſuch works, without a bluſh or an apology. Dr. Smith will excuſe this defence, which truth and perhaps other feelings have drawn from us. We can now hail him as a *brother*; and the forgiveneſs of brethren, we learn from high authority, extends much farther than our claim to it.

The firſt diſſertation, 'Reflections on the Study of Nature,' appeared twelve years ſince, and was noticed in our LXIſt volume. The ſecond is the addreſs to the Linnæan ſociety, reviewed in the IVth volume of our New Arrangement. For an account of the third, which treats of the 'Irritability of Vegetables,' we refer to our LXVIth volume.—To the ſecond eſſay Father Fontana's notes are annexed; but theſe do not appear to be of any great importance. We will ſelect a part of one of theſe as a ſpecimen.

'It is common with writers to make Aldrovandus die of poverty in the hoſpital. Certainly the long journeys he undertook for the ſake of natural hiſtory, and the conſiderable ſums paid by him to the moſt celebrated artiſts, in order to procure exact figures of different productions of the three kingdoms of nature, ſo far ruined his fortune, that though ſupported in theſe expences by ſome ſovereigns zealous for the advancement of ſcience, as well as by the ſenate of Bologna, he found himſelf towards the end of life reduced to a kind of indigence. After his death he was honoured with a magnificent funeral, which is ſufficient to refute the ſtory of his extreme beggary; neither is it credible that thoſe ſovereigns who had contributed to his undertaking, or the ſenate of his own country, to which he had left his rich muſeum as a legacy, could have let him die of hunger. The anonymous author of the Mélanges d'Hiſtoire Naturelle, printed at Lyons in 1763, adopting this fable, and ſaying that Urban VIII. made an epigram in honour of Aldrovandus and of his beautiful plates, which finiſhes with this elegant diſtich,

> 'Obſtupet ipſa ſimul rerum fœcunda creatrix,
> Et cupit eſſe ſuum quod videt artis opus,'

ſeems to wiſh to imply that this pope was contented with rewarding the labours of the philoſopher with verſes only. But it is a

certain fact that Urban VIII. did not obtain the pontificate till eighteen years after the death of Aldrovandus." Fontana. P. 68.

The extract from Condorcet's eulogium on Buffon might have been spared; and the encomium on Voltaire is too extravagant. Our admiration of the former is lost in pity, when we consider his ridiculous vanity; and the lustre of the other is sullied by faults still more reprehensible.

The four next articles are taken from the IIId volume of the Analytical Review. The works reviewed were Mr. Curtis's Botanical Magazine, Dr. Berkenhout's Synopsis of the Natural History of Great Britain and Ireland, Sowerby's Easy Introduction to the A of drawing Flowers, and Bertezen's Thoughts on the different Kinds of Food given to young Silk Worms.

The 8th article is a review of a Dutch translation of Linnæus's System of Nature, with correspondent French and English versions. The errors are truly ludicrous, and resemble one which, we recollect, occurred in the translation of a mineralogical note, where 'Agricola dicit' is rendered 'the farmers tell us.' Perhaps a short specimen may raise a smile in the most cynical reader.

'By the *night men*, which our author says have only the appearance of an human body, we are not to understand those valuable members of society so called, whose services are so well known in every great town, however applicable the description may be; but it is the ourang outang which is meant: and if in this instance our author has been obscure, he is abundantly explicit in his descriptions of the monkeys, where his language could not be mistaken even by any night-man whatever; the style, indeed being more suited to what may be imagined, that of their usual discourse, than to any I should think fit to use before this company.

'With respect to the explanation of the vegetable part of the system, a young student might be much misled by this work, and an old one puzzled in no small degree. The editor having turned to a dictionary for every word, with that perseverance for which his countrymen deserve great praise, has not always taken the right sense; for perseverance without judgment may often go very far out of the way. Thus he translates *filamenta* strings, *stigmata* stamps; and he commits errors in the characters of the classes which I confess myself incapable of unravelling. In syngenesia he says "the males and fructifyers are monstrous." In gynandria, "the males and females have the members monstrous." In monœcia, "the males and females live in the same place, but in different pipes." P. 206.

An Essay on the Genera of dorsiferous Ferns has appeared in the fifth volume of the Turin Transactions. It is now

tranflated from the Latin, and, as it has never occurred in our journal in its original drefs, we will briefly notice it.

The dorfiferous ferns have been divided into genera from the fituation of the fructifications and their aggregate figure. From thefe appearances Linnæus formed nine genera; and Schreber added two others: but the arrangement is not compatible with modern difcoveries; and, as the more effential parts of fructification are ftill unknown, Dr. Smith with great propriety prefers the involucrum, as the part of moft importance in determining the genera of thefe plants: it is 'efpecially to be noted on what fide and in what manner this covering burfts.'

'The involucrum is of a membranous nature, and is found in almoft every fern, covering the fructification before it arrives at maturity. It originates fometimes from the margin of the leaf, but more commonly from fome nerve or vein. Nor muft we neglect to obferve, in order to come at the knowledge of natural genera, whether the membrane and the fructification which it covers, be, with refpect to the nerve or vein, terminal or lateral. The involucrum adheres firmly to the frond on one fide, and on the other is more or lefs clofely preffed to it; not but that even on this fide alfo the air is altogether excluded, fo that in whatever mode the impregnation of the flowers is accomplifhed, the operation goes on in fecret under this covering, independent of all external communication. For the membrane clofely conceals and embraces every part, till the feed-veffels being arrived at maturity, are ready to difcharge their feeds; and that they are really feeds which thefe parts produce, has been proved by the experiments of many naturalifts.

'The principal thing to be noted for our purpofe, refpecting this membranaceous involucrum, is the direction or mode in which it feparates; that is, whether outwards (towards the margin of the frond), or inwards (on the fide which looks towards the rib or nerve of the frond or of its fegment). This circumftance no one has yet confidered; yet it is undoubtedly of the greateft ufe in determining natural genera, being not only conftant in every fpecies, but in ferns whofe habit and other particulars agree, it is always found to be fimilar. And fo far is this principle from fuperfeding or overturning the genera of Linnæus, that it rather ftrengthens them and confirms their characters; nor fhall we often find it neceffary to change the diftribution of any of the Linnæan fpecies. Neither do I make thefe remarks to prove the characters given by this great author now unneceffary; on the contrary, I retain them all, only begging leave to add to them my characters taken from the involucrum, in order that his genera may be eftablifhed on the more firm foundation, and that we may have certain principles on which to found new ones.

'I mean at prefent to treat of fuch ferns only as are called dor-

ſiferous, that is, which bear their fructification on the back of their frond. I therefore deſignedly paſs over, not only thoſe cryptogamous plants which profeſſor Schreber in his new edition of the genera plantarum has denominated miſcellaneæ, but I likewiſe omit ophioglоſſum, oſmunda, and onoclea. This laſt is by the learned profeſſor juſt mentioned erroneouſly referred to thoſe ferns whoſe capſules are furniſhed with a ring. To his obſervations upon ophioglоſſum and oſmunda every body muſt aſſent.' P. 226.

The dorſiferous ferns are firſt arranged in ſections. Thoſe of the firſt ſection are ſtyled annulatæ; theſe have the capſules on footſtalks with two valves and one cell, bound with a jointed, elaſtic ring; and the fructifications are generally covered with a membranous involucrum. This ſection contains the acroſtichum, polypodium and aſplenium of Linnæus, &c. The new genera are the ſcolopendrium, woodwardia, vittaria, davallia, &c. The generic characters are chiefly taken from the ſituation of the fructifications, their diſtinctneſs, form, &c.

Thoſe of the ſecond ſection are denominated thecatæ; the capſules are ſeſſile, burſting by pores, deſtitute of a ring, and naked. This ſection contains three genera—gleichenia, marattia and danæa. A plate illuſtrating the characters of the new genera, is ſubjoined. On the whole, we conſider this paper as an important addition to the ſtock of botanical knowledge.

The tenth tract contains a deſcription of a new ſpecies of plant called ſprengelia. It belongs to the ſame natural order as the epacris of Linnæus's ſupplement. It properly appertains to the ſyngeneſia monogamia; but this order Dr. Smith is inclined to aboliſh, and therefore places the ſprengelia in the pentandria monogynia, near the azalea, with the epacris. One ſpecies only, the 'incarnata,' is mentioned; and a coloured figure is added. This plant is a native of New South-Wales.

Another native of New Holland is the next object of deſcription—the weſtringia of the order of didynamia gymnoſpermia: it belongs to the firſt ſection of M. Juſſieu's labiatæ. The only known ſpecies is the weſtringia roſmariniformis. 'The leaves are ſlightly bitter, not aromatic; the flowers not inelegant, though without ſmell.' A coloured plate is ſubjoined.

Another new genus follows from the ſame country. It is ſtyled boronia, of the natural order of rutaceæ, allied to the dioſma, of the claſs octandria and order monogynia. Four ſpecies are here deſcribed, with the aid of coloured plates. They appear to be elegant plants, generally aromatic, though not always pleaſingly ſo; and promiſe to be ornaments of the green-houſe. It

is named from Borone, an humble but faithful follower of Dr. Sibthorpe. He was a native of Milan, and had rendered himself an amiable and interesting companion to his master. His death was occasioned by an accidental fall at Athens. A short account of his life is given near the close of the volume.

The History of London and its Environs. Embellished with Maps, Plans, and Views. Parts I. II. III. IV. V. VI. 4to. 10s. 6d. each. Stockdale. 1796-7-8-9.

IN the publisher's advertisement, prefixed to the first part, we are informed that this work will

'comprehend a description of London and the circumjacent country, to the distance of from twenty to thirty miles. It will consist of eight parts, making two large quarto volumes, one particularly relating to the metropolis, the other to its environs. Besides all the more interesting historical notices to be derived from books, original descriptions of every important place, drawn from actual survey, will be given; and no pains will be spared to render the whole equally a fund of useful information and of liberal amusement.' P. iii.

Having six-eighths of the work now before us, we are enabled to give some opinion of the manner in which the above-mentioned large and liberal promises have been fulfilled; and, that our readers may know the grounds of that opinion, we shall lay before them a sketch of what has actually been done: they may then compare the result either with the publisher's advertisement, or with their own expectation and opinion of what a *History of London and its Environs* ought reasonably to contain.

In the first part we have a general account of Middlesex, Surry, Kent, Essex, and Hertfordshire, not collected, in every instance, particularly in the case of Essex, from the latest authorities. We also meet with a description of the river Thames, from its source to its entrance into the sea, with short notices of some of the most remarkable places by which it passes, and an account of some canals. The new river, likewise, is accurately described; and many particulars are given of its curious history, and the more curious progressive increase of wealth which it has yielded to its proprietors.

The parts here marked IV. and V. (but which must be II. and III. when the work shall be bound) contain an account of the principal towns and villages, within the limits prescribed, of Middlesex, Surry, and Kent. The accounts of places within twelve miles of London are taken from Mr. Lysons' late

work; a circumſtance which we do not mention as an objection; for where can better authority be found? Our principal objection is to the proportion of matter given to each county or particular place. In this we are at a loſs to know by what rule the compiler could have been guided—ſurely not by circumſtances of grandeur or curioſity. Of theſe two parts, Middleſex occupies only *fifty-two* pages, Surry *thirty-ſix*, and Kent *two hundred and ſixty-nine!* With regard to individual places, Sevenoke takes up as much room as Greenwich; Tunbridge more than both; and Maidſtone, which is ſix miles beyond the utmoſt limits preſcribed, occupies more than four times as much as Greenwich. The accounts, though in general ſhort, would have been ſufficient for the purpoſes of the common reader, had they been fairly proportioned, and had the diſtance of each place from London been noticed. Thoſe who wiſh for more than a ſuperficial account, either hiſtorical or antiquarian, will be inclined to conſult Haſted, Morant, or Lyſons.

Parts II. III. and VI. contain the hiſtory of London from the earlieſt times to the year 1617. This is taken principally from Maitland, with occaſional references to general hiſtorians. The hiſtory of London, written upon Maitland's plan, is in many reſpects the hiſtory of the kingdom at large; and as new lights are ſometimes thrown upon parts of that hiſtory, they may be advantageouſly conſulted in a new compilation; but, as far as we have compared the preſent with Maitland, we perceive no material additions in matters of local antiquity. The ſtyle, however, is improved; and many reflections are introduced which mark the liberality of the preſent times.

Such are the contents of the ſix parts of this work already publiſhed. The performance, upon the whole, has diſappointed our expectation. The length of time which has elapſed ſince the laſt editions of Stow and Maitland—the immenſe increaſe of the metropolis, and, above all, the alterations ariſing from the deſtruction of ancient and the erection of new public buildings, ſtreets, &c. point out the neceſſity and utility of a new hiſtory, or, at leaſt, a continuation of the labours of Stow or Maitland. It is obvious, however, from the ſketch we have given, that in theſe reſpects the preſent undertaking is deficient, and that when the two remaining parts ſhall be completed, much of what was *propoſed* will not be executed. For theſe two parts, there remain the accounts of Hertfordſhire and Eſſex, which, according to the ſcheme, will take up one of them, while the other muſt include the hiſtory of London for nearly two centuries; and, after all, we have not a *deſcription of London*, which was promiſed in the introduction. But here the author ſhall ſpeak for himſelf.

Having put the queſtion,

'Is a new hiſtory of London neceſſary in the preſent ſtate of things?' he anſwers, 'aſſuredly it is. Let thoſe who recollect what it was but five and twenty or thirty years ago, relate what they have lived to ſee. Let them deſcribe if they can the magical metamorphoſis of Durham-yard, of Somerſet-houſe and the Savoy, of Fleet-ditch and its purlieus, of Marybone north of Oxford-ſtreet, of the vicinity of Broad St. Giles, of old St. Luke's and upper Moorfields, of St. George's-fields and Greenwich-road, &c. and of a multitude beſides, and it will appear that volumes might be written on the ſubject of the very recent additions and improvements. Indeed, to give a proper repreſentation of London, even to its own inhabitants, the hiſtory of it ought to be written once every year; for ſcarcely a month paſſes in which there is not brought forward ſome plan or another of elegant embelliſhment, of public or private utility, of civil or commercial improvement. Of conſequence, the lapſe of a ſhort time will render this work, like all thoſe on the ſubject which have preceded it, obſolete and imperfect; and fathers of the next generation will be pointing out to their ſons the ſpot on which Temple-bar ſtood, and leading them through ſpacious and wholeſome ſtreets of magazines, ſhops, and palaces, reared where the ſhambles of Fleet-market and of Whitechapel now pollute the earth and poiſon the air.' P. 3.

From the glaring inconſiſtency between this paſſage and the contents of the work, we muſt leave the compiler to extricate his labours as well as he can. To us it appears that the plan was raſhly conceived and is radically wrong. The *environs* of London cannot be ſuppoſed to extend *thirty* miles; yet from this extenſion a great part of the work is employed on the deſcription of places which have no connection with London, while London itſelf, its palaces, churches, halls, hoſpitals, &c. are overlooked.

The plates and maps are, a large four-ſheet map of the country from twenty to thirty miles round London; a plan of the canals; a large map of the Thames; a view of Blackfriars bridge with St. Paul's; a view of Fairlop-oak, in Hainault foreſt; a view of the monument and of the city before the great fire in 1666; a ſurvey of London after the fire in the ſame year; a four-ſheet plan of London in its preſent ſtate, comprehending the ſurrounding villages, four feet eight inches by three feet three inches, being twenty-nine miles in circumference; a view of London from Dr. Lettſom's houſe at Camberwell; the queen's walk in the green park; Weſtminſter-bridge with the abbey; Somerſet houſe; the tower; maps of Eſſex and Surry; view of Greenwich hoſpital; Chelſea college; London from Highgate, &c.

Theſe maps appear to be executed with accuracy; and the

plan of London is, we think, particularly excellent. The views are well engraven; but, being chiefly of the picturefque kind, they are rather ornamental than ufeful.

A Defcription of the Genus Cinchona, comprehending the various Species of Vegetables from which the Peruvian and other Barks of a fimilar Quality are taken. Illuftrated by Figures of all the Species hitherto difcovered. To which is prefixed Profeffor Vahl's Differtation on this Genus, read before the Society of Natural Hiftory at Copenhagen. Alfo a Defcription, accompanied by Figures, of a new Genus named Hyænanche: or, Hyæna Poifon. 4to. 12s. Boards. White.

THE bark is a medicine of fo great importance that it ought not to be trufted to common obfervers, or to be confidered with flight attention. If the apprehenfion, which Condamine raifed 50 years fince, were the only reafon for feeking other fpecies of the fame genus, to fupply the deficiency which the decortication of fo many trees would occafion, it would be fufficient to excite the moft anxious fearch for a new fource of this valuable medicine. Twelve fpecies are now found, which are brought together in this fhort defcription. Profeffor Vahl's Differtation on the Cinchona is prefixed. This author, after fome trite remarks on the neceffity of afcertaining the true fpecies of each medicinal plant, gives a brief hiftory of the cinchona, and of the different fpecies known to him. The bark firft brought to England was called in America the bark of Loxa: and it is not the common officinal bark, though it may probably be nearly related to it. It feems to be the fpecies of the early editions of the Syftema Naturæ, and of the fixth edition of the Genera Plantarum.

The firft fpecies of the genus in queftion is the C. officinalis of Loxa, defcribed by Condamine.

The fecond is the C. pubefcens, fo called from the down on the upper part of the ftalks. Its medical properties have not been obferved.

The third is the C. macrocarpa, the C. officinalis of the later editions of the Syftema Vegetabilium. It is an inhabitant of Santa Fé.

The C. Caribbæa has been often defcribed in our language. The C. corymbifera occurred to Dr. Forfter in the iflands of the Pacific Ocean, and therefore can fcarcely be called a production of the old continent.

The C. lineata and floribunda greatly refemble each other. The bark of the latter (the Quinquina Piton of Badier) is equal in efficacy to that of the C. officinalis, except in being flightly laxative, and occafionally emetic—qualities probably confequent on its being ufed in a more recent ftate than the Peru-

vian bark. The C. brachycarpa grows in Jamaica. It resembles the C. floribunda in appearance, and probably in qualities.

The ninth species is the C. angustifolia, described by Schwartz and Vahl.

A short account is added of what is perhaps a new species of the cinchona, found accidentally by Mr. Brown (captain of a vessel employed in the southern whale fishery) in the province of Quito. We shall transcribe his description.

'Notwithstanding the predilection in favour of the young tree, I am apt to suppose its bark possesses only an imaginary virtue. When reduced to powder, both are so nearly alike, that it is extremely difficult to distinguish them: and in whatever form it is given, they are equally powerful and efficacious. A gentleman of some eminence told me that he thought them a tenth stronger than the Cortex usually sold in London. As I had some of the latter in substance from the Hall, whose genuineness I knew could be depended upon, the following is an observation or two I made on that subject. Tecamez bark differs from that sold by the Hall in colour, strength and taste. Its colour is more a brownish green, spread over with a whitish moss; the inside darker, and of a deep red inclinable to black. When broke it appears of a pale red, and has a most pleasant bitter taste, rather aromatic, but not so astringent as that I had in the medicine chest. When boiled however with the same quantity of water, or infused in it when cold, its strength is superior, and its taste far more agreeable. If its virtues are drawn off by spirits, they equal that I had from the hall, and in four cases sat easy upon the stomach, when the other did not. As many of our people unhappily laboured under a severe ague on our return, I thought that a proper opportunity of trying their effects; for, whatever may be advanced to the contrary, experience has taught me that in many instances bark is highly serviceable in this disorder. Having selected two people with the same symptoms, I gave it to them in equal doses, and by the use of Tecamez bark one recovered a week before the other. I tried it again—the difference was five days. I had only an opportunity of repeating it a third time, and it was seven. But I would not wish to be understood as if I thought these few cases sufficient to ascertain its superior effects with certainty. That must be left to future experiments, and to gentlemen of greater penetration, and who have more ample opportunities of making them than the writer of this article can pretend to possess.

'All the trees I saw grew on the side of a hill, and in a dry barren soil. The mould was of a red colour intermixed with small stones, and not above a foot deep; for several of their roots appeared at the surface, and few that I examined were covered more than two inches by the earth. None of them were in

bloom in August, nor had the least appearance of seed. Neither could I obtain any of it at Tecamez. This is an article they set very little value on themselves, and are wonderfully surprised it should be enquired after. Of the tree indeed they are more careful, and very cautious in shewing it. Had it not been for the friendship of the gentleman I mentioned, it is more than probable I should have returned without seeing it at all.' P. 32.

The usual mode of giving it is in infusion; and it is found to differ considerably from the yellow bark: the plant of the latter is not yet known.

The C. longiflora is a plant of Guiana, perhaps the same with the C. Caribbæa. The C. spinosa is an inhabitant of St. Domingo: it is described in the Journal de Physique for 1790.

The hyænanche globosa is found near the Cape of Good Hope. Its fruit is collected, hidden in the carcases of lambs, and placed where the hyænas usually come. It infallibly destroys them.

The plates of this volume are tinted *en noir*. They are accurate and elegant; and the whole is an useful and respectable performance.

Naval Sermons preached on board his Majesty's Ship the Impetueux, in the Western Squadron, during its Services off Brest: to which is added, a Thanksgiving Sermon for Naval Victories; preached at Park-street Chapel, Grosvenor Square, Dec. 19, 1797. By James Stanier Clarke, F.R.S. Domestic Chaplain to the Prince of Wales, Vicar of Preston in the County of Sussex, and Morning Preacher at Park-street Chapel. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Payne. 1798.

SERMONS adapted to particular occasions and circumstances, and to distinct classes of men, have a very useful tendency. Here, a great variety of taste, and of talent, is allowed to the preacher. The same discourses, which would be well adapted to a court, would be lost upon a congregation of rustics; and those which are calculated for the meridian of the metropolis would ill suit the latitude of the expanded ocean. A judicious preacher, and one who makes utility his chief object, will therefore consult the character, situation, and circumstances of his hearers, both in the choice of his subjects and in his manner of treating them. It is, without doubt, a difficult task for a man of liberal education, and of refined manners and sentiments, to instruct the vulgar with success; and we imagine, that the preacher at Park-street chapel found it easier, and more congenial to his taste, to address his polite audience, than to model his discourses to the sturdy character

and the rude understandings of uninſtructed ſeamen in the Impetueux.

We muſt do Mr. Clarke the juſtice to ſay, that his ſubjects, and the texts which he has ſelected, are judiciouſly choſen. In the firſt ſermon, he conſiders 'a life of peril as favourable to the attainment of virtue:' in the ſecond, he treats of 'the knowledge of God derived from the contemplation of his works;' and, in the third, of the importance and value of the chriſtian religion; on which occaſion he ſhows the inefficacy of reaſon, unaſſiſted by divine revelation, to lead the mind to a proper knowledge of God. As a ſpecimen of his ſtyle and manner, we ſelect ſome of his remarks upon this ſubject.

'*They who go down to the ſea in ſhips, and occupy their buſineſs in great waters*, have opportunities of beholding the wonders of creation, and the ſublime appearances of nature, whether in beauty, grandeur, or horror; which thoſe, who are engaged in the more tranquil and ſtationary employments of life, cannot enjoy.

'For though we may look through Nature up to Nature's God; though by reaſoning on the ſeveral glories of creation, we may convince ourſelves that there is a Supreme Being, by whom *the heavens and the earth were finiſhed, and all the hoſt of them*, and by whom man was formed out of the duſt of the ground; yet ſtill we ſhall find ourſelves in a ſtate of darkneſs and obſcurity, with nothing more than the glimmering light of human reaſon to guide us amid all the dangers and difficulties of life, or to conſole us when we arrive at its awful termination.' P. 41.

'But this reaſon, though it may ſerve the purpoſes of your natural ſtate, or the ordinary courſe of life, is not ſufficient, without divine aid, for your ſpiritual concerns; and would prove of itſelf a very inſufficient and devious guide to the important truths of religion. It has indeed often been deſcribed, as the helm that would direct us in our paſſage through the voyage of time; but, unleſs religion is the pilot, we ſhall never reach the haven of eternal peace. Reaſon, alone, cannot diſpel the miſts of prejudice, or correct the variations of error: how often is it turned from its courſe, by ſome ſeducing pleaſure, which attracts it to the land! how often, loſt in eaſe and indolence, it ſtrikes upon the rock, or drives upon the quickſand! how often, when the ſtorms of paſſion ariſe, does it leave the veſſel to its fate; and when it is impelled, a mere wreck, to the brink of deſtruction; reaſon, agitated and alarmed at its own weakneſs, would ſink into the opening gulph; if religion did not ſeize the helm, and direct the ſhattered veſſel to the ſhore.

'When labouring under the oppreſſion of ſorrow, reaſon may tell us, that man is born to trouble as the ſparks fly upward: that we muſt receive the bread of adverſity, and the water of affliction; and can alone hope to cloſe this ſcene of tribulation in the grave,

In this uncertain and gloomy ſtate, reaſon leaves us, with but a faint ray of light, to guide us onward in our pilgrimage.

'The chriſtian religion here comes to the aid of man; and, exhorting him to be of good cheer, declares that all are equally under the care of a juſt and merciful God: but that, in order to become perfect and upright, they muſt paſs through the diſcipline of tribulation, and muſt encounter adverſity in the face of their fellow creatures. Thus will their virtues be proved and the infirmities of their mind be deſtroyed. As many as I love, ſaid the ſpirit, I rebuke and chaſten; to curb their paſſions, to humble their pride, to wean them from the tranſient objects of time, and to direct their thoughts to the glories of eternity.' P. 42.

Such reflections as theſe do honour to the preacher's head and heart; and our readers will perceive the pertinent language addreſſed to mariners, with which he clothes his juſt obſervations. We think this one of the beſt ſermons in the collection, and do not heſitate to offer another extract from that part which deſcribes the chriſtian's confidence in the proſpect of death.

'Our bleſſed Saviour not only abated the agonies of death by the glorious doctrines he taught; but deſcended into the gloomy manſions of the grave: that its terrific darkneſs, which hitherto had appalled the heart of man, might, by the brightneſs of his preſence, be diſperſed for ever. There is therefore no abode after this life, no place, where the departed ſoul of man awaits the awful mandate of reſurrection, in which Jeſus Chriſt has not himſelf appeared. From the moment of the body's diſſolution, to the period of its delivery from death, he has borne its ſorrows, beheld each ſolemn grandeur, and explored that unknown abode, which every revolving day renders nearer to us. And we may reſt aſſured, the ſame benevolent compaſſion, which urged him to make this world an happier ſtate for his diſciples, during their mortal probation, has induced him to alleviate every pain, and to remove any dreadful horror, that the ſoul might otherwiſe have experienced on leaving its earthly tabernacle. When the ſpirit of man has ceaſed to animate this periſhable frame; and has entered trembling on that expanſe, which at preſent ſeems to ſtretch out its impervious gloom; his merciful Redeemer will extend the arm of power, that ſupported St. Peter on the deep; and will exclaim, as he did to the diſciples, —*Be of good cheer! it is I! be not afraid!* P. 52.

The remaining ſermons are 'on the neceſſity and advantages of obedience,'—'on the naval character,'—'on the love of our country,' —and on ſome other ſubjects.

From our ſelection, the reader will perceive that Mr. Clarke is entitled to ſome commendation for the compoſition of his diſcourſes, and the appropriate turn which he frequently gives to his reflections. He ſeizes the advantages of his ſituation,

and, when in view of the enemy's coaſt, takes occaſion to contraſt the advantages of the Britiſh conſtitution and government, with the diſorders, licentiouſneſs, and tyranny, which have ſprung up in France. He alſo, very properly, enforces obedience, and a regard to diſcipline and ſubordination. He recommends to thoſe whom he addreſſes the love of their country; and he holds up to their view the characters of Columbus and captain Cook, as objects of applauſe and imitation.

In ſpeaking of the Britiſh conſtitution, he juſtly remarks, that

'Every true and loyal Briton will readily confeſs the advantages, which reſult from living under a government; where, in every part, appears a gradual, regular, wiſe ſubordination: where the power that rules is circumſcribed within certain limits; and the duty of thoſe who obey is determined by known laws; where no change can be made in the nature of any claims, which the power that governs, and the people who are ſubject to it, mutually poſſeſs, without ſome extraordinary cauſe to juſtify ſuch an innovation: where the ſovereign authority is unmixed with tyrannic or arbitrary ſway; where juſtice is executed in mercy; and thoſe, who are inveſted with the dignity of its adminiſtration, have not the privilege of making laws, according to their paſſions or underſtandings; but are ſolely appointed to enforce thoſe already prepared, by the wiſdom and experience of the legiſlature, for the common welfare.

'We enjoy, by this means, a degree of ſecurity, of public happineſs, and interior tranquillity, for which a very large and oppreſſed part of Europe languiſhes in vain. Hence it is, that we exult as Engliſhmen in the honour of our character, the excellence of our conſtitution, and a courſe of national proſperity: while the country, whoſe ſhores you behold; and againſt whoſe inſulting menaces, you now offer, and have ſo long offered, a proud defiance; contains ſcenes of confuſion and diſorder, of tyranny and miſrule, of perſecution and murder; at whoſe horrors Europe trembles.' p. 66.

'The maxims of the Britiſh conſtitution, appear valuable, in proportion as they are made the object of our ſerious attention. Conſider them, not only as the laws, by which you are governed, and unto which obedience is therefore due, but as forming a code, fraught with conſummate wiſdom; the boaſt of this country, and the envy of every other nation. Conſider them well, and you will perceive, that they produce whatever happineſs and ſecurity can be expected from any human inſtitution; and that they poſſeſs, in an extraordinary degree, the means of conſtant renovation, and the principle of gradual improvement. The honeſt pride, which ariſes within us, on hearing what arduous ſtruggles our anceſtors made to obtain theſe advantages, animates the heart to ſupport and pro-

tect them. We consider the earth as sacred, where these heroes have long slept in death. Their venerable monuments, now mouldering beneath the power of time, are dear to the youthful patriot; who, as he passes by them, exults in these vestiges of his country's glory, and feels an ardent hope, that his name may hereafter be thus enrolled, in the records of its fame.' P. 156.

Of the love of our country Mr. Clarke thus speaks.:

'The christian religion has greatly contributed to enlarge and to correct this affection for our country; giving it a liberal and open character, which it did not formerly possess. Before the establishment of christianity, it rather tended to contract, than enlarge the heart. A superior wisdom to that of man, was requisite to confine its influence within proper bounds; and to prevent its nurturing that arrogant and haughty spirit, which the nations both of Greece and Rome considered as a patriot virtue.

'The untutored savage loves his country, though it contains little more, than the wretched habitation, the trackless wilderness, and the uncultivated waste. He roves at large amid these scenes, which are alternately desolate and inhabited. But as the progress of civilization advances, and his rude character becomes lost in the milder customs of polished society; when the solitary enjoyment of natural liberty, is exchanged for legal security and social happiness; the love of our country, gradually displays features more liberal and attractive. Yet still, until Jesus Christ had revealed the only foundation of all virtue, and taught mankind, that divine lesson for public spirit and private friendship,—"as ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so unto them;" until, they had seen Him shed the tears of real patriotism, and had been exhorted, both by precept and example—to love their enemies, to bless their persecutors, and to do good unto those, that hated them; this virtue, like all the rest, was vain and imperfect. A real love for our country, must be founded on the extensive basis of philanthropy, and genuine philanthropy is no where taught, but by the precepts of the christian religion.' P. 157.

'Anxious to maintain those blessings which your ancestors enjoyed, and have bequeathed, with such increase of happiness, to their posterity; let every one preserve a love for his country, untainted and pure: that when times of unusual danger, demand the united exertions of a nation's zeal, with all the disinterested virtues of a patriot mind; in every work that you begin, in the service of your king, and country,—you may go forth with all your heart, and prosper.

'On that altar, which our forefathers reared to Liberty, the flame of patriotism arises! Around it, let every age and rank assemble: the nobles, and the rulers, and the elders of the people, and take that oath, which the Genius of Britain proffers:——We swear

that we will remember the Lord! We will fight for our brethren, our ſons, our daughters, our wives, and our houſes! and will firmly unite, in the preſervation and defence of her, who dwelleth, with ſo much terribleneſs, in the clefts of the rock; whoſe rampart, and whoſe wall,—is from the ſea!' P. 170.

After this diſplay of quotation, our readers, we preſume, will judge with us, that a vein of eloquence, and of juſt ſentiment, runs through theſe diſcourſes. They are, indeed, declamatory and immethodical; but they are animated and bold, and are enriched with a variety of happy illuſtrations. In the Thankſgiving Sermon, we may add, are ſome well-timed obſervations on the character and merit of Britiſh ſailors.

The Works of the late John Mac-Laurin, Eſq. of Dreghorn: one of the Senators of the College of Juſtice, and F. R. S. Edinburgh. 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 9*s.* *Boards.* Robinſons. 1798.

THE author of theſe volumes was ſon of the celebrated Colin Mac-Laurin; but his purſuits were widely different from thoſe of his father. The livelineſs of his temper deterred him from entering the church; for which his friends intended him: he applied himſelf to the Scotch law with ſucceſs; and, in 1788, by the intereſt of his friend Mr. Henry Dundas, he was promoted to the bench under the title of lord Dreghorn. His reputation and ability juſtified the promotion; and the period had not then arrived when no reputation and no ability could atone for uncourtly opinions.

'Mr. Mac Laurin, from his earlieſt years, was the friend and lover of liberty.... The welfare and happineſs of mankind were the great objects of his ſpeculations: he was jealous of the encroachments of the crown, and regarded as unjuſtifiable every attempt to oppreſs the people.

'He had ſeen America ſtruggle for independence; he predicted the conſequence of the fatal meaſures purſued againſt her; and with thoſe who thought as he did, he ſhared the obloquy of the day: he ſaw America ſucceſsful, he could not but rejoice in the event. He lived to ſee another revolution; monarchy aboliſhed and a ſtruggle for a republic, in France: he lamented the cruelties that were exerciſed in this bold attempt: he pitied the monarch who fell; he looked forward with anxiety to the new government: he beheld, in the dawning republic, a nation contending for its freedom; and an audacious experiment attempted,—the reformation of mankind: he thought the old ſyſtem in France bad, what the new one would be no man could predict. The armed coalition he viewed with indignant regret: the attempt to cruſh that diſ-

tracted country, to him appeared unjuſt and impolitic: left to themſelves a ſhort time, he thought, would determine both the fate of that great empire, and alſo the hitherto problematical queſtion, whether an extenſive nation can enjoy the republican form of government? He always thought, if foreign powers had not interfered in order to reſtore the old ſyſtem, a civil war was inevitable: it would be bloody, but could not be long. He foreſaw, that the powers of Europe coaleſced, would make France, to a man, rally round the ſtandard of liberty; and accordingly, he beheld the beſt diſciplined armies in the world fall before raw and unexperienced republicans: the continent was deluged with blood, and the genius of liberty ſoaring triumphant, threatened to revolutioniſe the globe.' Vol. i. p. xvii.

The firſt volume conſiſts of poems.

'At a very early period of life,' (ſays his biographer) 'he diſplayed a natural turn for poetical compoſition, and, among his ſchool-fellows, was diſtinguiſhed by the name of poet. Indeed our author had not only an early, but a conſtant attachment to the Muſes, and it may, therefore, be thought ſurpriſing, that he did not exert his poetical talents more than he has done; and that what he has written is chiefly upon local ſubjects, and ſuch as probably, in theſe times, will not pleaſe the republic of letters.' Vol. i. p. viii.

To us it is not ſurpriſing that Mr. Mac-Laurin ſhould have forborne to write more poetry; for he appears to have poſſeſſed few characteriſtics of a poet. On the addreſs to the powers at war he is ſaid to have beſtowed much pains; it is one of his laſt productions, and we agree with the editor in thinking it the beſt; a more favourable extract, therefore, cannot be choſen.

'Ye continental kings! beware;
The deep and dubious game forbear,
The fateful feud compoſe;
Think what the iſſue, if you fail,
And balance in an equal ſcale
Your forces and your foes.

'Say which from principle enroll'd,
And which ſeduc'd by crimps, or gold?
The candid anſwer make:
Your troops by that criterion try'd,
War, as the queſtion you decide,
Continue or forſake.

'Th' enthuſiaſt nation, right or wrong,
Is ſupernaturally ſtrong,
By no defeat diſmay'd;
Superior ſtrength and ſkill it braves,
Unleſs its force by fools or knaves
Miſmanag'd, or betray'd.

'Can you arreſt the lava's tide,
Caſcading from the mountain's ſide,
That in combuſtion roars?
Or ocean, when the tempeſt raves,
And his ungovernable waves
Daſh deluge on the ſhores?

'If wild fanaticiſm's zeal
Could on your anceſtors prevail
To join the mad cruſade,
To efforts of impaſſion'd mind
That moſt can dignify mankind
Muſt liberty perſuade.' Vol. i. p. 171.

Mr. Mac-Laurin was more addicted to light poetry. The following piece ſeems to have more point than any other in the volume.

'The Signs diſcontented.

'The Signs inquir'd why Jove had not,
In heav'n, a ſtock of females laid in,
And but one woman there had brought,
Who was, provoking, ſtill a maiden?

'Bluntly the Ram ſet forth, that he
Often had caſt a ſheep's eye at her;
Aquarius repreſented, ſhe
Had often made his teeth to water.

'The Bull wou'd have the god to know,
Either he would no longer ſtay there;
Or, if he did not get a cow,
In faith he wou'd Paſiphae her.

'Poor Virgo, how to pleaſe them all
Being really at a loſs to know,
To Sagittarius ſaid, I ſhall
Have more than two ſtrings to my bow.

'Nay, if to them I ſhould prove kind,
Others would make the ſame requeſt:
Shall I be with a Scorpion join'd?
Or take a Cancer in my breaſt?' Vol. i. p. 9.

The poetical taſte of Mr. Mac-Laurin may be eſtimated by what he ſays with regard to length of verſe.

'I never could ſee any ſolid reaſon for making verſe eſſential to epic poetry; nor when ſuch poems are written in verſe, for uſing the long one of ten ſyllables, that of eight would anſwer juſt as well. Nobleneſs of thought and expreſſion, not length of verſe, are neceſſary to grandeur and ſublimity.

‘ To have the power to forgive,
Is empire and prerogative ;
And ’tis in crowns a nobler gem,
To grant a pardon, than condemn.

‘ Would any word of addition to each of thefe verfes improve them ?’ Vol. ii. P. 337.

Much poetry cannot be expected from one who could quote thefe lines for their ‘ noblenefs of thought and expreffion.’ In the fame effay the author fays that Pope's ‘ tranflation of the Iliad is, in truth, much fuperior to the original, with which I have often compared it in many of the moft trying paffages.’

The fecond volume confifts of profe effays on various fubjects. Some of thefe are upon legal points. We meet with fome fenfible remarks upon the punifhment of tranfportation, which, the writer argues, ought never to be inflicted but by way of mitigation. What he fays upon trial by jury merits attention.

‘ Some have thought, that the admiration of the mode of trial by a jury of the vicinage, is a vulgar error. The object of the law (they fay) in all trials is, or ought to be, to get a fet of judges as impartial and intelligent as poffible. To acquire a thorough knowledge of the rules of juftice and evidence, which are, and muft be complicated in every great commercial country ; to be able to detect the fallacy of ingenious pleadings, and gather the truth from contradictory teftimonies, requires a liberal education, deep ftudy, and long experience. It is plain, therefore, that an occafional jury cannot be fo intelligent as judges. A ftanding, or felect jury, is a very different thing ; it comes very near to a fet of judges.

‘ As to impartiality, it is manifeft that a jury of the vicinage muft be the moft partial tribunal that can be compofed. The law of England, fenfible of this, has introduced a variety of checks and precautions, which, however, fome late trials have proved not to be fufficient ; particularly thofe of the Birmingham rioters, who burnt the houfes of Dr. Prieftly and fome others. There are no fuch checks in Scotland ; but the public profecutor in that country, aware of the danger, has frequently brought criminals from different counties to be tried at Edinburgh, in order to avoid local paffions and prejudices. This, however, is but an imperfect remedy ; for there are paffions and prejudices which are univerfal ; fuch as thofe arifing from politics, religion, and even property. Would it be juft to try a man, accufed of being a poacher, by a jury of landed gentlemen affociated and zealous to fupport the game laws ? It has often happened, both in political and judicial arrangements, that no attention has been paid to certain fteps of procedure, on account of their obfcurity and feeming infignificance ; though, in reality, they were of the utmoft confequence. The power of

ſummoning the jurors is an inſtance: if it be abuſed, all the ſubſequent and derivative procedure muſt be unſafe.

'It appears from Blackſtone, that great pains have been taken in England as to that matter; but, after all, there ſeems to be reaſon to think that enough has not yet been done. We often find it aſſerted, in ſpeeches and pamphlets, that the jury was packed. Now, ſince the Engliſh have a *vox ſignata*, a particular expreſſion for that manœuvre, it is plain that it is not impoſſible, nor indeed uncommon. It will probably be found that the error is in the firſt ſtep. The jury ought not to be ſummoned by the ſheriff, or by the court, or clerk of court.

'Since an occaſional jury cannot be as intelligent and impartial as judges, it ſhould ſeem that jury trial has been adopted, not becauſe it was thought good in itſelf, but becauſe it was thought better than trial by judges; of whom a jealouſy has been entertained, chiefly on account of their being appointed by the crown.

'If this be the principle, it follows, that the power of ſummoning a jury ought to be veſted, ſo as to exclude all poſſibility of influence from that quarter. The jurors ought to come on by ſome other method which would have that effect.

'The allowing challenges to be made, without cauſe, to a great number of the jurors, ſhews a very good diſpoſition in the law of England, but it is inſufficient. The ſpecial jury ſeems to be the faireſt, and indeed as fair as poſſible. Why is it not the mode of trial in criminal caſes, as well as civil? or, why not adopt the principle of the mode of trying a conteſted election in the houſe of commons? It is curious enough, that a man is certain of a fair trial as to the merits of a controverted election, but muſt be expoſed to a packed jury when arraigned for his life.' Vol. ii. p. 43.

He proceeds to point out defects in this part of the Scotiſh law; he argues that challenges without cauſe ſhould be admitted; and that the preſident of the criminal court ought not to poſſeſs the power of ſelecting the fifteen jurors who are to try the priſoner, as this power 'thwarts and counteracts the very object of law, in eſtabliſhing trial by jury, which is to controul, check, and diminiſh the influence of the court.'

In the eſſay on the chief promoters of revolutions, Mr. Burke is juſtly cenſured for the manner in which he ſpeaks of legiſlating lawyers.

'A celebrated writer againſt the French conſtitution aſcribes the multitude of faults which he pretends to find in it, to a number of lawyers having been elected members of the aſſembly which compoſed it; his opinion forſooth being, that lawyers everywhere, and eſpecially in France, are incapable of any great exertion beyond the line of their profeſſion, and particularly diſqualified from arranging the conſtitution of a ſtate.

'A raſh, groundleſs, and injurious propoſition, repugnant both

to reaſon and experience. It is obvious, that the profeſſion of the law requires a more than ordinary education, and no ſmall ſhare of acuteneſs, judgment, and penetration; qualities highly proper for political reſearches; and that the practice of it muſt, frequently, lead thoſe who follow it to meditate on the government of their country, to perceive its defects, and to inveſtigate the remedies. This muſt have been peculiarly the caſe in France, from the nature of ſome of the courts there, which had long been in the practice of oppoſing, and, in ſome degree, controlling the arbitrary mandates of regal power. Many years ago, frequent and vigorous were the ſtruggles of the French parliaments againſt oppreſſive edicts of the king; and ſpirited and eloquent were the remonſtrances which they ſpoke and publiſhed againſt them. It was ſome of them that made lord Cheſterfield perceive the approach of the revolution near forty years before it arrived. What was Monteſquieu?—A man of the law.

'This writer talks with much contempt of the provincial lawyers in that country. Did he conſider what a province in France is? Petion was an advocate of Rennes.

'But who were the chief promoters of the American revolution, in which this author has found no fault?—the lawyers; a fact of which he could not be ignorant, from his having been long agent for the colony of New York, and during the period of his ſeemingly-patriotic oppoſition to the American war.' Vol. ii. P. 162.

The ſame eſſay gives a fair account of that literary conſpiracy which has been ſo loudly denounced by the worthy ſucceſſors of Titus Oates.

'But there was another claſs of men that contributed fully as much to the revolution—men of no profeſſion, no fortune, but of firſt-rate talents, and ſuperior ſoaring genius. France, for half a century paſt, has poſſeſſed more men of that deſcription than all the reſt of Europe; owing, perhaps, to all ranks in the army and navy being appropriated to nobility, and to the offices in the law being venal. Thus excluded, they naturally became authors, both for ſubſiſtence and honour, and on political ſubjects, theſe being the moſt intereſting, both to themſelves and to the public. They conſidered themſelves, and they in reality did form, a ſort of body, *le parti qui enſeigne*, the teaching or inſtructing party, as they expreſſed it. They devoted themſelves entirely to the compoſition of books, calculated to rouſe their countrymen to liberty; and encouraged, by the moſt pathetic exhortations, not only one another, but ſuch men every where, to ſimilar labours. "O men of genius! (exclaims one of them,) of whatever country you may be, behold your lot,—misfortune, perſecution, injuſtice, the contempt of the court, the indifference of the people, the calumny of thoſe who are or think themſelves your rivals, indigence, exile, and perhaps even an obſcure death at the diſtance of five hundred leagues

from your country! Behold what I announce to you; but on that account must you renounce the instruction of men? undoubtedly not: and were you desirous of doing so, is it in your power to subdue your genius, and resist its rapid and terrible impulse? Are you not formed to think, as the sun is to shine? Have you not, like him, your energy? Obey then the law which guides you, and beware of deeming yourselves unfortunate."

'The argument, however, does not seem to conclude that a man of genius should expose himself to all those evils in his lifetime; rather that he should commit them to writing, in order to be published after his death. Helvetius's book on Education was intentionally posthumous, he having been cruelly and unjustly persecuted during his life, for his Treatise de l'Esprit. In truth, he who follows the last method has most merit; for he can have no other motive than good will towards mankind, the other may an inferior.

'Duclos, in his Secret Memoirs of Louis XIV. says, "No persecution, much indifference and neglect, is the death of all sects. Truth itself, constantly despised but not persecuted, will have but few partisans."

'The last proposition, I apprehend, is erroneous. Truth may be long despised and may long have but few supporters; but in time it will prevail. I have seen several instances of this in my own time, and history affords a multitude.

'De la Harpe (iv. 8.) has, in my judgment, with much more reason maintained as to truth, that "she meditates in secret the happiness of mankind; she throws continually into the earth useful seeds, which, though often trodden under foot by the present generation, are, nevertheless, not choaked, but ripen obscurely for futurity. The souls of men, roused and agitated by her, have tried all their force, and stretched all their springs. The common object of all is the human race. Let us be bold enough to believe, that their efforts shall not be absolutely barren, and let us not despair of mankind.' Vol. ii. p. 164.

On parliamentary and borough reform we meet with some just observations. The defect in our representation, it is remarked, 'seems to lie in the command which a few have obtained of the election of a very great number of the members of the house of* commons.'

'That command puts it in the power of a few to thwart the measures of government, which must either yield to, or gain a majority of them: it cannot but chuse the latter alternative; and the consequence is, to bestow on the few an influence which converts them into a sort of oligarchy. This is productive of many evils, particularly of an opposition, not from conviction (which must be always highly useful), but of one from ambition or interest, which

* We have seldom seen such a string of genitive cases.

has been frequently hurtful; and of a diſtribution of offices, places, and penſions, different from what would be made but for that influence, and probably not ſo juſt to individuals or advantageous to the public.

'Beſides, the conſtitution is not in fact what it pretends to be in theory. Now deception, when perceived, muſt excite general indignation; unleſs itſelf, or ſomething as bad, has introduced a general apathy or ſelfiſhneſs.' Vol. ii. p. 169.

The borough reform, he ſays, ſhould be extended

'to an abolition of all corporations, for the reaſons aſſigned by Mr. Smith in his Wealth of Nations, and many other authors, who, I believe, have convinced all mankind, except the members of theſe corporations, of the juſtice and expediency of the alteration.

'In a late litigation before me, between the maſter taylors of Edinburgh and their journeymen, the latter declared, that they could afford, and were ready to make all the different articles of men's apparel, ſome a fourth, ſome a third, and ſome a half cheaper than the rate at which their maſters charged: and they produced a printed paper and table, from which it appeared, that they had made the ſame offer in a ſimilar law-ſuit before the court of ſeſſion twenty years ago. Thus the country is heavily taxed to maintain an ariſtocracy of taylors. The caſe is the ſame with the other corporations; but the borough reformers have ſeveral times declared, and in ſome printed papers lately, that ſuch abolition was no part of their plan.' Vol. ii. p. 172.

The author's opinions reſpecting the lawfulneſs of eating animal fleſh, ſeem to have been adopted without ſufficient conſideration.—Upon the whole, the volumes have afforded us much amuſement; but we think that Mr. Mac-Laurin's reputation would not have been injured if the poetical part had been ſuppreſſed.

An Account of the moſt approved Mode of draining Land; according to the Syſtem practiſed by Mr. Joſeph Elkington, late of Princethorp, in the County of Warwick: with an Appendix, containing Hints for the farther Improvement of Bogs and other marſhy Ground, after draining; together with Obſervations on hollow and ſurface Draining in general. The whole illuſtrated by Explanatory Engravings. Drawn up for Conſideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement, by John Johnſtone, Land-Surveyor. 4to. 1*l.* 1*s.* *Boards.* Robinſons. 1797.

THE expenſe of draining wet boggy ſoils has often exceeded their value; and many ſpots have been left in a ſtate of nature, from an apprehenſion of the heavy charges of the at-

tempt. This object, however, is at present more easily attainable, since Mr. Elkington's mode has been more generally adopted; a mode first discovered by accident, but matured by diligence, sagacity, and experience. This gentleman was draining a wet field in the usual manner; and, finding that his trench did not reach the subjacent water, he struck an iron bar into the bottom, and forced it into the ground about four feet. When he had withdrawn the bar, the whole was soon filled with water, and overflowed. This, in a reflecting mind, branched into all its varied consequences. It is obvious, that wetness of ground must proceed from two causes, either from the rain not passing through a retentive soil above, or from the springs not penetrating the substratum. Mr. Elkington's practice is applicable only to the latter circumstance. He advises persons to tap the springs; that is, to bore into them in the most convenient way for the passage of the water, or occasionally bore through the retentive substratum, to let the water pass into the more porous strata below it. The plan appears simple; but it requires no little skill to discover the situation of the springs, and to find the best method of discharging the water. Mr. Elkington has succeeded in both points. The former is effected by a careful examination of the level of the springs around, and the latter by that happy discernment, which is equally the result of sagacity and experience.

'In regard to the use of the auger, it is said, that in attempting to discover mines by means of an auger, springs have been tapped, and the adjacent wet ground thereby drained, either by letting the water down, or giving it vent to the surface. The auger has also been made use of in bringing water into wells, by boring in the bottom of them, to save the expence of digging, especially in Italy, where it is probable that the practice is very ancient. But, that it has been used in draining land before Mr. Elkington made that discovery, no one has ventured to assert.

'In Dr. Nugent's Travels through Germany, printed anno 1768, there is an account of a mode of draining land, on principles in some respects of a similar nature, not indeed by the use of the auger, but by making pits. And, in a publication by Dr. James Anderson, entitled "Essays on Agriculture and Rural Affairs," printed anno 1775, after describing a mode of tapping the doctor had adopted, by sinking small pits, he adds, "I have often imagined that the expence of digging these pits might be saved, by boring a hole through this solid stratum of clay, with a wimble made on purpose; but, as I have never experienced this, I cannot say whether it would answer the desired end exactly."

'Mr. Elkington, however, made use of the auger prior to the date of these publications, or to any hint he could possibly derive from any publication in the English language, though it is probable

that, in so far as regarded tapping of ſprings for wells, the uſe of the auger was well known in ſome parts of Italy. 'Buffon ſtates, " that, in the city of Modena, and four miles round, whatever part is dug, when we reach the depth of ſixty-three feet, and bore five feet deeper with an auger, the water ſprings out with ſuch force, that the well is filled in a very ſhort ſpace of time. This water flows continually, and neither diminiſhes nor increaſes by the rain or drought." Mentioning the different ſtrata that are met with to this depth, he adds, " Theſe ſucceſſive beds of fenny or marſhy earth and chalk, are always found in the ſame order wherever we dig; and very often the auger meets with large trunks of trees, which it bores through, but which give great trouble to the workmen; bones, coals, flint, and pieces of iron, are alſo found.' P. 9.

To follow this plan in all its varieties, as applicable to bogs, fens, &c. in different ſituations, is not the object of a literary journal. For this, we muſt refer to the volume, where the whole is judiciouſly detailed. The rent of the ground for one year will uſually repay the expenſe of the method employed by Mr. Elkington. It is ſoon covered with a fine herbage; and, by lying ſo long under water, it is enabled to bear ſucceſſive crops without requiring any manure. The beſt method of managing land, thus reclaimed, is explained at length.

' On the whole, it appears from the foregoing obſervations, that this mode of draining bogs, or land injured by ſubterraneous water, is by far the moſt effectual of any that has yet been ſuggeſted; and that ſuch ground may be made completely dry, by cutting off one ſpring alone, with which the particular place to be drained may have no apparent communication, but which may be ſo connected under ground, that from it all the others derive their ſource; and being therefore the principal cauſe of the whole, to hit on it ſeems the chief deſideratum of the buſineſs. Of this, there are many inſtances in Mr. Elkington's practice, where, by a few auger-holes hitting on the particular ſpot where the loweſt part of the main ſpring lay, a conſiderable extent of ground, with which his drain had ſeemingly little connection, has been laid dry, to the aſtoniſhment of thoſe who have ſeen it, and furniſhing a ſubject of incredibility to many who have not.

' At Odſtone hall, in Lieceſterſhire, a very remarkable inſtance may be ſeen. A conſiderable tract of wet marſhy ground of very little value, divided in the middle by a ſmall river, he ſo completely drained, by making a ſmall trench at one ſide, and by boring in it, that the part of the marſh on the oppoſite ſide of the rivulet, which was at a very conſiderable diſtance from the drain, became in a ſhort time equally dry with that where the cut was made, has continued ſo ever ſince, and from being formerly of little or no value, is now converted into excellent water meadow, producing, without manure, abundant crops of graſs.

'At Madely near Newcaſtle in Staffordſhire, there is a very conſiderable bog of ſome hundred acres, the drainage of which was always deemed impracticable, being of ſo wet and ſoft a nature that no cattle could paſs over any part of it, till of late, Mr. Elkington having obtained a leaſe of it for a certain number of years, has, by means of very little cutting and expence, ſo effectually drained it, that it may now be conſidered not only one of the moſt wonderful undertakings of the kind ſo eaſily accompliſhed, but is alſo, from the other improvements making on it, likely ſoon to become one of the moſt productive farms in that part of the country.

'At Wooburn in Bedfordſhire, he has lately accompliſhed the drainage of two extenſive bogs belonging to his grace the duke of Bedford, in a manner attended with little expence, although they were formerly reckoned irreclaimable.

'By drains, too, which he has made, pits and wells at a great diſtance have been laid dry, and diſtant ſprings have abandoned their former courſe.

'Many more inſtances of remarkable drainages of the ſame kind, executed by Mr. Elkington in different parts of England, might be mentioned; but, as they are all founded on the principles I have explained, and executed in the ſame manner, the preceding may ſuffice as evidences of their ſucceſs, being facts no leſs true than aſtoniſhing, and which are taken notice of in the agricultural reports of the counties to which they belong, as ſhall be ſhown in the ſequel.' P. 38.

The firſt appendix contains hints for the improvement of bogs after draining. The ſecond treats of hollow and ſurface draining in general, and is drawn up from communications addreſſed to the board of agriculture. From a remarkable diſcovery it appears, that hollow draining was practiſed, at leaſt in the eaſtern part of the kingdom, above three hundred years ſince. In other diſtricts it is a comparatively modern practice. This uſeful volume is illuſtrated by fourteen plates.

An Eſſay on Britiſh Cottage Architecture: being an Attempt to perpetuate on Principle, that peculiar Mode of Building, which was originally the Effect of Chance. Supported by fourteen Deſigns, with their Ichnography, or Plans, laid down to Scale; compriſing Dwellings for the Peaſant and Farmer, and Retreats for the Gentleman; with various Obſervations thereon: the whole extending to twenty-one Plates, deſigned and executed in Aqua-Tinta. By James Malton. 4to. 1l. 7s. Boards. Hookham *and* Carpenter. 1798.

THE ideal comforts of a cottage gain ſuch an early poſſeſſion of the mind, that they fix a durable impreſſion; and to

the cottage, as an asylum from pain and disappointment, it is not unusual to retire. Experience alone teaches, that it is often the abode of penury, and that its whitened walls are no defence against anxious care, pining discontent, or disappointed ambition; for it is a just remark, that the traveller, in a cold comfortless night, looks with envy at the poor apartment in which he sees the twinkling of a little candle, while perhaps the inhabitant is suffering almost every misery which human nature can endure, and is eager to escape from that existence which the other envies. The passion for enriching cottages, however, has sometimes other sources. The opulent owner of a splendid mansion may wish to vary the uniformity of his prospect by a picturesque object, or may want to hide an unpleasing scene. The man of taste may prefer an habitation, which the additions of fancy will not injure by the destruction of its uniformity, or which he can at pleasure render more convenient, while he adds to its picturesque appearance. These and other circumstances may have contributed to render this style of building fashionable; for which we own ourselves advocates on the score of convenience and warmth, and also, (we may add) on that of cleanliness; for the ornaments should be in that homely style which will allow frequent washing.

Architects have not correctly ascertained the true cottage style. We shall select our author's opinion.

'When mention is made of the kind of dwelling called a cottage, I figure in my imagination a small house in the country; of odd, irregular form, with various, harmonious colouring, the effect of weather, time, and accident; the whole environed with smiling verdure, having a contented, chearful, inviting aspect, and door on the latch, ready to receive the gossip neighbour, or weary, exhausted traveller*. There are many indescribable somethings

* 'It is with pleasure, and I hope it will be so received by my readers, that I here introduce a piece of poetry, the production of a friend, which is so replete with cottage imagery, according to my idea of a cottage, that I have often perused and pondered on it with exceeding delight.

'At the door of my straw-cover'd cot
The rose and the jessamine blend;
Each tree that o'ershadows the spot
Is dear to my heart as a friend!
Its course, from the first noble donor,
From father to son can we trace;
For ages the seat of fair honour,
Content, independence, and peace.
The trav'ller, at fast falling night,
The smoke of its chimney surveys,
And journeys with bosom more light,
Secure of refreshment and ease;
For fortune permits to extend,
Though she give not superfluous store,
A jug, and a crust, to a friend,
A morsel to gladden the poor.'

that muſt neceſſarily combine to give to a dwelling this diſtinguiſhing character. A porch at entrance; irregular breaks in the direction of the walls; one part higher than another; various roofing of different materials, thatch particularly, boldly projecting; fronts partly built of walls of brick, partly weather boarded, and partly brick-noggin daſhed; caſement window lights, are all conducive, and conſtitute its features. The moſt happy deſcription of ſome of the exterior furniture of a cottage, that I remember ever to have met with in any of our poetical authors, is in a poem called the Landſcape, by a Mr. Knight:

> " Its roof, with reeds and moſſes cover'd o'er,
> And honey-ſuckles climbing round the door,
> While mantling vines along its walls are ſpread,
> And cluſt'ring ivy decks the chimney's head!"

Which, in the circumſtance of deſcribing its enfolding verdure only, excites in the imagination a picture of the entire effect, with every conſtituent feature.' P. 5.

In this deſcription, too much ſeems ſacrificed to the picturesque. Should not the covering be uniform, as well as the ſubſtances of which the walls are compoſed? The former ſhould be of thatch both for ſimplicity and warmth, and the weather-boards confined to the ſtable or cow-houſe. The leading features are certainly thoſe of ſimple ruſticity, not of ſqualid diſtreſs ſtooping to the patch-work of neceſſity. To be pictureſque, the building ſhould, in ſome points, want uniformity: the breaks ſhould be bold, that the ſhadows may be broad: but the bow window ſhould appear added to the parlour for convenience, or a ſmall room ſhould in another place project for a ſimilar purpoſe, for a cooler aſpect, or a better proſpect.

The following remarks deſerve the attention of thoſe who build from the deſigns of faſhionable architects.

'Many are the perſons whom experience has taught that after building a houſe, the deſign when executed has not accorded to expectation, or realized the idea conceived of it from having beheld it on paper. Three cauſes may be aſſigned for this frequent diſappointment. Firſt, from the unintentional deception of the architect, who, to give a good effect to his drawing, throws bolder ſhadows from the projecting parts of the intended building, than their actual projectures would caſt from the ſun's light; and from his giving to the receding parts, too great a diſparity of tint, in order, as painters expreſs themſelves, to keep ſuch parts back: thus producing an effect which the reality will not aſſume from the light of nature, the parts being of the ſame coloured materials. Such practice ſerves greatly to deceive, when eſtimating the effect of any intended erection from inſpection of the drawings.

'A second reason proceeds from the design of each front of the building being given separately in geometrical, and not conjointly, as in perspective delineation. Considered apart, each front may be very pleasing, but extremely incongruous when brought into one focus; with other misconceptions in the appearance of elevated parts, allowance in height not being made for the depth of their recedure. And a third cause arises from the circumstance of the drawings being only miniatures of the thing intended. Reflection is not made that, when the features are expanded to the purposed dimensions, their dissevered parts assume a more homely appearance, and have a very different effect from their resemblance in little. The truth of which observation, even the justly-vain fair one will readily admit, who has ever examined her captivating features in a concave mirror, or magnifying dressing-glass.' P. 14.

The work includes twenty-one plates, among which are examples of different buildings, from the rustic cottage to the comfortable residence of a man of fortune in this style. The designs merit a considerable degree of commendation: but the introduction does not claim equal praise. The style is too turgid, and not calculated to introduce the simple cottage: it is a splendid portico leading to a hut. In the introduction we also find too much that is not applicable to the subject; and the writer seems to manifest too strong an inclination for the discovery of faults.

Copies of Original Letters from the Army of General Bonaparte in Egypt, intercepted by the Fleet under the Command of Admiral Lord Nelson. Part the Second. With an English Translation. 8vo. 4s. 6d. *Sewed.* Wright. 1799.

THOSE who eagerly perused the former collection of intercepted letters from the French army in Egypt*, though their curiosity may be supposed to be less strong at present, may yet be gratified and interested by a similar publication. Some of the letters, indeed, which compose the second part, are not of a later date than several of those in the first part; and there are few subsequent to the month of August. But we meet with additional information not unimportant, and with hints and remarks from which useful conclusions may be drawn.

The introduction is calculated to please the palates of those who are fond of the poignancy of sarcasm and abuse; and readers of that description are, we apprehend, too numerous.

Shechy, captain-adjutant to the staff of the commander in

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* See the 80th page of our present volume.

chief, is the writer of the two firſt epiſtles. In one of theſe, we obſerve ſome curious particulars reſpecting the Bedouin Arabs. A part of the account of thoſe wandering barbarians we will tranſcribe.

'The Bedouin Arabs conſtantly riſe at a very early hour, drop on their knees, and kiſs the ground twice, with their eyes turned towards the heavens. At ſunriſe, and at the firſt appearance of the moon, they repeat the ſame ceremony three times, directing their face towards that planet. They are commanded by chiefs, whom they reſpect; they ſalute them whenever they approach or paſs them, pay the greateſt attention to every thing they ſay, and punctually execute all their commands.' P. 5.

'They viſit frequently, and live in a ſtate of great familiarity and kindneſs one with another: but it is obſervable, that one family never eats with another. They exchange one kind of merchandize, or one object of general utility for another, without the intervention of ſpecie, of which they have no need. Every thing that is taken belongs to the taker: nay, a man may be made priſoner, and even ſold by him who made him ſo, without any other perſon's pretending to interfere. Their general practice is not to put any man to death, but only to rob him; unleſs he ſhould be raſh enough to make reſiſtance.

'Their manner of living is very hard. They feed on a ſpecies of bread extremely black, and baked on the dung of their camels. Their water, kept for a long while in bottles made of goats' ſkin, and conſtantly expoſed to the heat of the ſun, is extremely offenſive. They dip their bread in a kind of oil of a moſt diſagreeable ſmell, which they procure in the midſt of the ſands of the deſert.' P. 6.

In the ſecond letter, Shechy gives an account of the reduction of Alexandria. In the true ſtyle of a Frenchman, he exaggerates the dangers and difficulties of the attempt. The tranſlator, however, has gone beyond him in ſpeaking of the loſſes of the invaders; for he magnifies '*beaucoup* de monde' into a '*vaſt number* of men,' though the acceptation of *beaucoup* is conſiderably leſs ſtrong than that of our word *vaſt*.

Of the third epiſtle, which is anonymous, ſome parts are properly ſuppreſſed, as containing impurities of remark, and 'rank confeſſions,' poured by a 'miſerable profligate into the ears of his wretched father.'

The next letter abounds with complaints. Egypt is repreſented as the abode of wretchedneſs; and the people are ſtigmatiſed as brutes and ſavages. The miſeries experienced by the French in their march to Grand Cairo are ſaid to have been 'innumerable;' and ſuch was the diſappointment of the army on reaching that city, that a general deſire of returning to France ſeemed to ſuperſede all the views of Egyptian con-

queſt.—The writer of this letter, it appears, was not a ſoldier, but a naturaliſt: he was ſoon, however, familiariſed to the work of death; and he thus ſpeaks of ſcenes which he witneſſed, and of the conduct of his infatuated countrymen.

'You cannot have forgot how much the ſight, nay even the idea of a criminal executed, or about to be executed, uſed to affect me. War is a ſovereign remedy for this weakneſs. I have ſeen the dead and the dying, ſcattered heads and limbs, and my heart failed me no longer; here is a ſufficient proof, then, of the poſſibility of accuſtoming one's ſelf to carnage. I rode through the midſt of three thouſand ſlaughtered Mamelous; Milord trembled under me, while I fixed my eyes on thoſe poor victims of ambition and vanity, and ſaid to myſelf,—" We croſs the ſea, we brave the Engliſh fleet, we diſembark in a country which never thought of us, we pillage their villages, ruin their inhabitants, and violate their wives; we wantonly run the hazard of dying with hunger and thirſt; we are every one of us on the point of being aſſaſſinated; and all this for what? in truth, we have not yet diſcovered!" P. 40.

Captain Gay informs us, that the troops, in their way to Cairo, marched for ſeventeen days over burning plains, without bread, wine, or brandy; and, for five days, were even deſtitute of water. He adds, that an infinite number of ſoldiers periſhed by hunger and thirſt; that many even blew out their brains in deſpair, and ſome drowned themſelves in the Nile.

Girez boaſts of the *moderation* of the invaders in their treatment of the inhabitants of Alexandria; but his ideas of moderation are inconſiſtent with humanity.—In a poſtſcript, he adverts to the expedition of the Engliſh againſt Oſtend; and, after a falſe ſtatement of their loſſes, he ſays with a ſneer,

'Theſe iſlanders ought to be well beaten: they ſhould have ſtaid in their wooden houſes. Theſe animals deſcend, I think, in a right line from Moſes, who taught them to uſe the ſea. They ought to confine themſelves conſtantly to it, for, the inſtant they get on land, they prove themſelves to be a very ſtupid race.' P. 69.

Julien and Le Père communicate ſome particulars of the engagement in the bay of Aboukir. Admiral Brueys is blamed by the latter for having contributed to the ruin of his fleet by not following the advice of Buonaparte, for ſecuring it with the tranſports in the harbour of Alexandria.

The obſervations of adjutant-general Lacuée with regard to Egypt are worthy of notice; and his ſtrictures on the French character are juſt.

'Egypt has not the ſlighteſt reſemblance to what has been ſaid of it by our writers. Its ſoil, indeed, is fruitful, but there is little of it. Nature aſks only to produce; but the land is bare,

and almoſt uncultivated. The natives, degraded by ſlavery, are relapſed into the ſavage ſtate, retaining nothing of their former civiliſation but ſuperſtition and religious intolerance. I have found them reſembling, in every circumſtance, the iſlanders of the South Sea, deſcribed by Cook and Forſter.

'In a word, this country is nothing at preſent. It merely offers magnificent recollections of the paſt, and vaſt, but diſtant hopes of the future. It is not worth conquering in its preſent condition: but if ſtateſmen, above all, if able adminiſtrators ſhould undertake the management of it for ten years;—if for the ſame ſpace of time we ſhould employ all our care on it, and ſacrifice the whole of its revenues, it might become the moſt valuable colony of Europe, and effect an important change in the commerce of the world!

'But where are they,—theſe able adminiſtrators? we have, indeed, the man here capable of giving the firſt ſtrong impulſe to the taſte of Egypt, but not a ſoul equal to its adminiſtration,—whatever may be ſaid to the contrary by the babbling goddeſs.—Oh! how many falſe reputations were acquired in Italy! and how many pedeſtals will now reſt without ſtatues! Beſides; are the French, whoſe impetuoſity was well adapted to the conqueſt of this country,—are they, I ſay, endued with ſufficient patience to wait for all this? inceſſantly eager to pluck the fruit,—will they let it ripen for ten years? and will they not rather, like the ſavage of Monteſquieu, cut down the tree to have it the ſooner! the firſt meaſures which have been taken, give me every reaſon to fear it.' P. 132.

In a letter from brigadier Dumas, we have an account of the engagement on the Nile between the French flotilla and ſome gun-boats.

'On the 13th of July, at five in the morning, we perceived the enemy, to the number of ten thouſand, all mounted; marching along the left bank of the Nile, and ſupported by five gun-boats, which followed their movements. At ſix the action began. After a conteſt of four hours, the five gun-boats, which had kept up a terrible fire on our flotilla, boarded us. We were obliged to abandon our veſſels, and flee to that part of the bank where the enemy had the feweſt troops. About half an hour after, our land forces came up, and drove them back. We then recovered our veſſels, and victory declared in our favour!!!' P. 156.

Letters of inſtruction from Buonaparte, and epiſtles from ſeveral of his officers, are afterwards given; and the pamphlet concludes with an addreſs from Gregory, patriarch of Conſtantinople, to the Greek inhabitants of Corfu, and other iſlands reduced by the French, conjuring them to concur with the Engliſh, Ruſſians, and Turks, in the infliction of due chaſtiſement on thoſe diſturbers of ſocial order.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS.

Conſequences of the French Invaſion. By Sir John Dalrymple. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1798.

SIR John Dalrymple tells us that William the Third excited juſt indignation againſt the deteſtable tyrant Louis the XIVth by engravings of the ſufferings of the proteſtants on the revocation of the edict of Nantes; and, in imitation of that ſcheme, he has produced a ſet of moſt ridiculous caricatures of the ſcenes likely to take place on a French invaſion. It is ſufficient to ſay that, in one of them, the commons are repreſented as being hand-cuffed and prepared for Botany-bay; and that Mr. Pitt and Mr. Dundas are chained by the leg and neck with an iron chain, having alſo their heads cloſely ſhaven. Sir John ſhould have recollected that king William preſented to Europe engravings of ſcenes which had actually taken place. By overcharging his delineations, the baronet excites leſs indignation againſt the French than pity at the wild ravings of a diſtempered imagination. Ireland and La Vendée might afford him ſufficient ſubjects for a more uſeful mode of inſtruction.

French Aggreſſion, proved from Mr. Erſkine's "View of the Cauſes of the War;" with Reflections on the original Character of the French Revolution, and on the ſuppoſed Durability of the French Republic. By John Bowles, Eſq. 8vo. 3s. Wright.

In this work Mr. Erſkine is, in the author's opinion, completely foiled. As every one who doubts that point will be anathematiſed as a democrat and a Jacobin, we will preſerve a prudent ſilence on the great ſubject in diſpute between theſe writers, remarking only, that, if Mr. Erſkine ſhould be found guilty in the republic of letters, we will act the part of judges, and condemn him either to read over thrice the preſent publication, or to follow the preſcription of the Roman lawyer:

Tris Tiberim tranſnanto quibus ſomno eſt opus alto.

The Subſtance of a Speech made by Lord Auckland, on Monday the ſecond Day of May, 1796, *on the Occaſion of a Motion made by the Marquis of Lanſdown.* 8vo. 1s. Walter.

This pamphlet we overlooked when it firſt appeared; and it would now be ſcarcely neceſſary to notice it, if the author's mode of reaſoning, by being turned againſt himſelf, might not induce perſons to form an idea, perhaps too unfavourable, of the preſent ſituation of the country. The object of this ſpeech was, by a compariſon

of the ſtate of our affairs in 1796 with that in 1783, to ſhow that the country was in the former period, notwithſtanding the war, in a very flouriſhing ſituation. But this mode of arguing is fallacious. In 1783, the country, though at peace, was in a worſe ſtate from the effect of the burthens of the war than at any period during the war; but it was riſing into proſperity. In 1796, the country was ſinking from a flouriſhing ſtate, and was likely to ſink much lower. If the argument of the pamphlet be juſt, we are now in a deplorable condition; for, if the three per cent. conſolidated ſtock in 1796 at 66*l*. gave us ſo great an advantage over the country in 1783, when that fund was at 55*l*. at this moment when the ſame ſtock is under 55*l*. we have the proſpect of greater diſtreſs than was brought upon the country by the American war. But this is not the true mode of argument either for a politician or a financier. Many other circumſtances ought to be taken into conſideration; and it is not prudent, for a momentary advantage, to give an adverſary an opportunity of future triumph.

PROPOSED UNION BETWEEN GREAT-BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Speech of the Right Honourable William Pitt, in the Houſe of Commons, Thurſday, January 31, 1799, *on offering to the Houſe the Reſolutions which he propoſed as the Baſis of an Union between Great Britain and Ireland.* 8vo. 1*s*. 6*d*. Wright. 1799.

In examining the queſtion of an union between the Britiſh and Hibernian realms, the celebrated ſpeech of Mr. Pitt demands our particular attention. It was delivered after the rejection of the propoſal of union by the Iriſh houſe of commons. The miniſter expreſſes his regret and diſappointment at the treatment which the royal meſſage had received in Ireland, though he admits the full right of the legiſlature of that kingdom to exerciſe its judgment in the adoption or rejection of the meaſure. The reaſons adduced by him for perſiſting in his plan are two-fold; firſt, the vindication of the miniſtry for having introduced the ſcheme; ſecondly, the hope of a more favourable reception of it by the Iriſh legiſlature, when the queſtion ſhall have been fully ſtated. After a ſufficient explanation of theſe reaſons, he proceeds to ſtate ‘ the general grounds on which the queſtion reſts, and the general arguments by which it is recommended.’ The grounds are a more firm confederacy and a perpetual connection between the countries. The neceſſity of ſuch a connection is evident from the unwearied attempts of our enemies to deſtroy all hopes of it, and to take advantage of thoſe evils which require an immediate remedy. Theſe evils could not be remedied by what is called the final adjuſtment in 1782; and the imperfection of that adjuſtment is proved by the ſpeeches of thoſe perſons who ſupported that adjuſtment, and who are now the ſtrenuous oppoſers of the preſent meaſure. A great evil ariſes from commercial jealouſies, which are to be remedied (ſays Mr. Pitt) by ‘ two means only; either by ſome compact entered into by the

legiflatures of the two countries refpecting the mode of forming their commercial regulations, or elfe by blending the two legiflatures together; thefe are the only two means. I defy the wit of man to point out a third.'

Here the neceffity of blending the legiflatures is by no means proved; for, if fuch jealoufies can be fettled between totally independent and fometimes inimical nations by treaties of commerce, there can be little difficulty in mutual accommodation when the chief agents in the cabinets of the two kingdoms act under the authority of the fame fovereign.

We proceed to the confideration of a probable evil which may arife from two jarring legiflatures; and the affair of the regency is brought forward as a proof that great inconvenience may follow from fimilar difagreements. But it may be urged that this is not a fair inftance; for the legiflatures of both kingdoms were, in a very extraordinary manner, deprived of the fovereign who connected them, and were acting in a fituation which cannot again occur, as the regent of Great Britain is to be alfo the regent of Ireland. There is more folid ground for apprehenfion of evil from two diftinct legiflatures, in the queftions of peace and war, of alliances and confederacies.

The circumftances which call for the meafure are faid to be, firft, the arduous conflict of 'liberty againft defpotifm—of property againft plunder and rapine—of religion and order againft impiety and anarchy'— a conteft which requires the 'firm confolidation of every part of the empire;' and, fecondly, this increafe of commercial refources for the profecution of the conteft. The defects of Ireland are, want of induftry and of capital, and alfo the want of religious harmony. The two former will be removed by an infufion of Britifh induftry and the introduction of Britifh capital. On the laft point it is obferved that

'two propofitions are indifputable: firft, when the conduct of the catholics fhall be fuch as to make it fafe for the government to admit them to the participation of the privileges granted to thofe of the eftablifhed religion, and when the temper of the times fhall be favourable to fuch a meafure;—when thefe events take place, it is obvious that fuch a queftion may be agitated in an united, imperial parliament, with much greater fafety, than it could be in a feparate legiflature. In the fecond place, I think it certain that, even for whatever period it may be thought neceffary, after the union, to with-hold from the catholics the enjoyment of thofe advantages, many of the objections which at prefent arife out of their fituation would be removed, if the proteftant legiflature were no longer feparate and local, but general and imperial; and the catholics themfelves would at once feel a mitigation of the moft goading and irritating of their prefent caufes of complaint.' P. 39.

The objections to the meafure are afterwards examined. The firft is, the incompetency of the Irifh parliament to a difcuffion of the queftion; and here, inftead of folid argument, we meet will nothing but affertion.

'No man, who maintains the parliament of Ireland to be co-equal with our own, can deny its competency on this question, unlefs he meant to go the length of denying, at the fame moment, the whole of the authority of the parliament of Great Britain—to fhake every principle of legiflation—and to maintain, that all the acts paffed, and every thing done by parliament, or fanctioned by its authority, however facred, however beneficial, is neither more nor lefs than an act of ufurpation.' P. 56.

The inftance of the union with Scotland is adduced as a proof of competency: but thofe who deny the competency of the Irifh will doubtlefs affert the incompetency of the Scotch legiflature to annihilate itfelf. The fuccefs of a meafure is no proof of its rectitude.

The queftion of competency is made alfo to ftand or fall with the 'falfe and dangerous mockery of the fovereignty of the people;' but, though the fpeaker ufes this ftrong language, it is remarkable that, in his own explanation of the point, he admits the popular claim of fovereignty to the full extent maintained by a majority of the advocates for that opinion. In all governments, he obferves, there muft be fome place where a fupreme authority refides; and, 'in all thefe governments, indeed alike, that power may by poffibility be abufed, but whether the abufe is fuch as to juftify and call for the interference of the people collectively, or, more properly fpeaking, of any portion of it, muft always be an extreme cafe and a queftion of the greateft and moft perilous refponfibility, not in law only, but in confcience and in duty, to all thofe who either act upon it themfelves, or perfuade others to do fo.'

In thefe words Mr. Pitt allows that power may be abufed, and that it may be abufed in fo enormous a degree as to make refiftance to the government a point of law, confcience, and duty. We agree with him, that this queftion fhould be confidered as an extreme cafe, and of the greateft and moft perilous refponfibility; but furely it would have been better to leave the queftion in abeyance, without giving to the jacobins an opportunity of afferting that there might be a cafe in which the minifter of Great Britain would unite with them in what they deem the facred duty of infurrection.

The next point, the independence of Ireland, is treated with greater juftice and dignity. Every idea of fubjecting Ireland to a foreign yoke is difclaimed. The inftance of Scotland is properly mentioned in refutation of the idea of dependence; and, after fome juft obfervations on the mode of taxation to be fettled hereafter for the two countries, the union is deferred to a future day, 'when the effect of reafon and difcuffion may reconcile the minds of men, in that kingdom, to a meafure which I am fure will be found as neceffary for their peace and happinefs, as it will be conducive to the general fecurity and advantage of the Britifh empire.' P. 76.

Having exceeded our limits in this account of the fpeech of

the minister, we shall briefly remark, that the chief cause of its failure in a political view, is the want of a steady assurance to the people of Ireland, of the removal of those grievances or evils under which they are supposed to labour. He touches upon the emancipation of the catholics; but it is a point of mere conjecture, whether the imperial parliament will relieve them; and the reform of parliament is itself left untouched. The great point is to what interests the new imperial legislature would be the most favourable—those of monarchy, aristocracy, or democracy. If it should give strength to the executive government, is it not to be apprehended that it might overthrow the balance requisite in our mixed constitution? To an independent nation an increase of wealth will always be of less consequence than the improvement of its constitution. Great as the advantages are, which the speech proposes to the Irish nation, they may be over-balanced by the removal of its legislature to a distant capital, if the new parliament should be so constituted that the majority of its members might be under an influence independent of that of their constituents.

As a specimen of British eloquence, this speech labours under the disadvantage of not being sufficiently prepared for the closet. The effect on delivery might be very considerable; but the want of the pruning-hook and of the *limæ labor* is visible in every page. We observe a great *copia verborum;* but a greater concentration of sentiment, and more animated and energetic diction, are requisite to place the harangue on a par with those orations of eminent statesmen, which have long been the admiration of the scholar and the historian.

Substance of the Speech of the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, in the House of Commons, Thursday, Feb. 7, 1799, *on the Subject of the Legislative Union with Ireland.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Wright.

Mr. Dundas proposes the question whether the political diseases of Ireland are not likely to be removed by an incorporation of the two legislatures; but this question would have been introduced with greater propriety, if it had been shown that these diseases owed their origin to the separate existence of the Hibernian legislature. The chief arguments in favour of the union of the legislatures are taken from the example of Scotland, in which, we think, much knowledge of the subject is displayed. We smiled at the florid picture of the advantages to be derived by the Irish members from their seats in our house of commons. 'They would then be the advocates not only of Ireland and Great-Britain, but advocates for the rights and liberties of the human race.' Since the time of Anacharsis Cloots, this boastful language has had little effect; and it is disinterested in the speaker to admit a hundred advocates for the human race, who would, perhaps in the first session, take an active part against himself and his associates.

Subſtance of the Speech of the Right Honourable Henry Addington, Speaker of the Houſe of Commons, on the 12th February, 1799. In the Committee of the whole Houſe, to whom his Majeſty's moſt gracious Meſſage on the 22d January, relative to Ireland, was referred. 8vo. 1s. Wright. 1799.

After a conciſe but ſatisfactory view of the paſt ſtate of Ireland, Mr. Addington confines himſelf to the conſideration of the three plans propoſed for its tranquillity: catholic emancipation, the re-enactment of the laws againſt popery, and the incorporation of the legiſlatures of the two countries. On the ſubject of the emancipation, the uſual argument of the danger to which the proteſtant intereſt may be expoſed by a transfer of influence from property to numbers, is enforced by the ſpeaker. The re-enactment of thoſe laws of which the repeal afforded ſuch general ſatisfaction, would not perhaps tend to allay the preſent ferments. The incorporation of the legiſlatures has in its favour the ſupport of eminent ſtateſmen: it removes the danger of diſcordant determinations, and may be particularly beneficial to Ireland by precluding that ſpecies of conteſt 'which has hitherto ſubſiſted for obtaining political authority and power.' It may alſo lead to the extenſion of privileges to the catholics. The objections to the union from the incompetency of the parliament of Ireland to accede to the meaſure, and from the final adjuſtment in 1782, are conſidered as not valid. On the queſtion of competency, the ſpeaker does not appear to us to be ſo happy as in the other parts of this cool, manly, and dignified diſcuſſion; for, though a parliament may regulate, it by no means follows that it can deſtroy itſelf. The ſucceſſion to the crown may be altered; but we queſtion the right of parliament to deſtroy the crown, or any branch of the legiſlature. On this principle the eſtates of France might be juſtified in erecting themſelves into a convention, overturning the monarchy, and forming a new conſtitution.—The anxiety expreſſed by the ſpeaker on the introduction of the Iriſh members into the houſe, does him honour; and the whole ſpeech, both for manner and matter, deſerves a conſiderable degree of commendation.

The Caſe of Ireland reconſidered, in Anſwer to a Pamphlet, entitled Arguments for and againſt an Union, conſidered. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. 1799.

This author argues that, unleſs the known cauſes of all our misfortunes and diſgraces be removed, no alteration of form or of name will alter the nature of the country, or give laſting peace and ſecurity to it; that an union, without ſuch removal, will only unite the open diſcontents of Ireland to whatever cauſes of complaint may remain in England; and that it will expoſe both countries to the machinations of foreign and domeſtic enemies, and create in Ireland new ſources of diſturbance, while it drains her of her little remaining ſtrength. He alſo maintains, by the experience of particu-

lar countries, as well as by argument, that all religious distinctions may be abolished, and the government reconciled to principle, at the same time that every human security may be given to the protestants of Ireland for their ecclesiastical establishment, their properties, and even their preponderance in the state.

In the course of these discussions, he enters into a minute examination of the original pamphlet, ascribed to Mr. Cooke, refuting or corroborating his assertions as they happen to serve his purpose; for some of the positions of that writer may certainly be turned against him. But his chief object is the question concerning the catholics. As he contends for complete emancipation, or what he terms 'the abolition of all religious distinctions,' it is obvious that he has taken a different ground from some of the opponents of the union, and all the favourers of it. The latter only hint that emancipation *may* be granted, when, by sinking the majority of catholics in the majority of *British* protestants, it may be safe to extend their privileges. This author, on the contrary, thinks that, without or before an union, a total repeal of religious distinctions (the most ample security being provided for the protestant establishment), and a distribution of some of the inferior places of profit among the middling classes of the catholics, would greatly contribute to render Ireland happy and flourishing. To us this does not appear consistent: the retention of an establishment is the greatest of all religious distinctions: and we are not certain that the catholics would be content with those *inferior places of profit*, those 'crumbs from the tables' of the protestants, who must still enjoy an envied pre eminence.

RELIGION.

A Sermon delivered at the Octagon Chapel, Bath, on Thursday, Nov. 29, 1798, *being the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving. By J. Gardiner, D.D. Rector of Brailsford, and Vicar of Shirley, in the County of Derby.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Rivingtons. 1798.

The preacher's text is taken from Psalm ciii. 1, 2. from which, after recounting a variety of national benefits, he enforces with energy the duties of gratitude and praise. But we cannot approve the fashionable mode, introduced in several thanksgiving sermons which have come before us, of pouring out a torrent of invectives against our enemies, however reprehensible and offensive their conduct has been; and the preacher's poignant reflections on those members of opposition who were desired to give evidence at the late trials at Maidstone, might well have been spared.

Dr. Gardiner speaks feelingly of the recent distractions of the sister kingdom, and the divine interposition in frustrating the designs of our enemies in that quarter; and, from his addrefs to the Irish part of his auditory, it appears that many temporary refugees from that country were collected at Bath.

The ſtyle of this ſermon is animated; and many of the preacher's reflections are juſt. The length far exceeds the common run of diſcourſes; but we truſt that the energetic language and delivery ſecured throughout the attention of the auditory.

A Sermon preached at the Pariſh Church of Heyteſbury, in the County of Wilts, on the 29th of November, 1798; a Day appointed for a general Thankſgiving. Publiſhed by Requeſt. By David Williams, Curate of Heyteſbury. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1799.

Mr. Williams indulges himſelf, and probably pleaſed his hearers, in deſcanting on the irreligion and atrocities of the French nation, while he compliments both himſelf and them on their ſuperior piety, and their being 'untainted by the ſpurious and vitiated philoſophy of the age.' We were better pleaſed with his religious exhortation, in which he enforces on his hearers the words of his text: 'Sanctify the Lord of Hoſts himſelf; and let him be your fear; and let him be your dread: and he ſhall be for a ſanctuary.'

A Sermon, preached before the honourable Society of Lincoln's Inn, on Thurſday, November 29, 1798; being the Day appointed by his Majeſty's Proclamation for a general Thankſgiving. By William Jackſon, B. D. Student of Chriſt Church, Oxford, and Preacher to the Society. 4to. 1*s.* 6*d.* Rivingtons. 1798.

The preacher firſt notices our national dangers; then adverts to our ſeaſonable deliverance; and afterwards points out the ſuitable improvement we ought to make of the divine mercies. We muſt, however, remark that, in this Chriſtian ſermon, the name of Chriſt is not once mentioned; nor, in the enumeration of divine favours, is any notice taken of the bleſſings derived from the goſpel.—By way of apology for not particulariſing the late ſignal naval ſucceſſes (on which moſt of the late thankſgiving ſermons ſo much dilate), Mr. Jackſon ſays,

'I may appear, perhaps, too much to have left unnoticed the events themſelves, which are the ſpecial occaſions of the appointment of this day's ſolemnity. But I have done this at the ſame time not undeſignedly.—The ſignal interpoſition of God's providence in our favour ſo lately experienced cannot want enumeration, whilſt every heart and countenance declare, what the people of this land aſcribe to the benefits conferred by them.—From the bravery of our countrymen likewiſe, now ſo often and ſo deciſively victorious, I can have had no wiſh to withhold the acknowledgment paid by all; but I have feared only to tarniſh the luſtre of it by weak and inefficient praiſe. What an whole kingdom greets with acclamation alſo, there is little need for the individual to extol with words—and the adverſaries with whom we are engaged may ſay better than ourſelves likewiſe (for now in their turn have they all felt the full force of it) what is the power and ſtrength of Britiſh valour combined with Britiſh diſcipline.

'To the glory of a late exploit eſpecially, and to the fame of that high deed, to which we can ſcarcely find a parallel, it were idle to think of adding by any recital of it—nations abroad confeſſing it to have been their mighty deliverance, and all men ſtanding in amazement both at the magnitude and the bravery of it.' P. 15.

National Bleſſings conſidered and improved, in a Sermon, preached on Occaſion of the late public Thankſgiving, Nov. 29, 1798. By Alexander Black, Miniſter of the Aſſociate (Burgher) Congregation, Muſſleburgh, and publiſhed at their Requeſt.—To which is annexed, an Extract from a Sermon, delivered on the ſame Day, by the Rev. Mr. Hall, Edinburgh. 8vo. Ogle.

Amongſt the numerous effuſions of religious exultation on account of the ſignal victory of the Nile, there are ſome not unworthy of notice from divines in the northern part of the iſland. The author of this ſermon is a ſeceder from the eſtabliſhed church of Scotland; and appears to be a man of good ſenſe, of moderation, and loyalty. His diſcourſe breathes the ſentiments of a good man and a patriotic citizen. In enumerating the national bleſſings by which our land has been diſtinguiſhed, he ſpecifies the goſpel, and liberty of conſcience—fruitful ſeaſons and external proſperity—internal peace—our late naval victories—and freedom from the calamities of war within our iſland. Theſe bleſſings he wiſhes to improve as ſo many motives of gratitude, humility, and repentance. Upon theſe branches of his ſubject are to be found ſome uſeful obſervations. He juſtly inquires,

'Is it not matter of ſincere acknowledgment to God, when diverſity of opinion does not alienate the affections of brethren, nor prevent them from uniting for their common intereſts?'—He adds, 'theſe are preciſely our circumſtances as a nation. A diverſity of opinion in matters of leſs importance does exiſt. I may venture, however, to affirm, that there is but one ſentiment of attachment to our long approved conſtitution; and one ſentiment reſpecting the neceſſity of aſſerting our deareſt rights, againſt enemies of every deſcription. The great body of the people are this day aſſembled, to expreſs their one ſenſation of gratitude to that ſuperintending providence, by whoſe favour we have eſcaped the dangerous revolutionary ſhoals upon which not a few of the ſtates of Europe have ſuffered ſhipwreck; by whoſe favour we are ſtill governed by our own laws, and in poſſeſſion of our own privileges.'

He proceeds to deſcribe, in glowing colours, the calamitous effects which would attend a revolution, or an hoſtile invaſion.

In peruſing this ſermon, we remarked the ſevere animadverſions of the writer on the practice of lay-preaching, which, it ſeems, is gaining ground in Scotland. He alſo takes occaſion to remind

his feceding auditors, that, though they were affembled on the day appointed for public thankfgiving, yet it was an act 'in obedience to their own fpiritual fuperiors, without the interpofed authority of the ftate.'—Annexed are fome good remarks, in a fermon preached on the fame occafion by the Rev. Mr. Hall.

National Liberality and National Reform recommended. A Sermon, preached in the Parifh Church of St. George, Bloomfbury, on Sunday, February 4, 1798. By Samuel Glaffe, D. D. F. R. S. Chaplain in Ordinary to his Majefty. Publifhed by Requeft. 8vo. 6*d.* Rivingtons.

Elegance of ftyle, and beauty of fentiment, are not confpicuous in this difcourfe; but Dr. Glaffe enforces loyalty, liberality, and national reform, in a plain, perfpicuous manner.

On the prefent Crifis of Affairs. A Sermon, preached at Weftminfter-Abbey, on Election-Sunday, May 13, 1798. By W. Cole, D.D. Chaplain to his Grace the Duke of Marlborough, Prebendary of St. Peter's, Weftminfter, and late Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. 4*to.* 1*s.* Rivingtons. 1798.

Dr. Cole takes for his text, —— 'when the fullnefs of the time was come;' but, inftead of explaining and applying it in reference to the great event of the incarnation of Chrift (an event at which he merely hints, and the difcuffion of which he profeffedly waves, as 'being more appropriate to that folemn and joyful feafon, in which we commemorate the birth of our Saviour and Redeemer'), he fays, he fhall confider the expreffion of *the fullnefs of time*, as denoting feveral critical and remarkable feafons, applicable alfo to particular conditions, and interefting concerns of various defcription and denomination, and fhall particularly refer to the prefent 'momentous crifis of affairs.'

This is a mode of interpreting and applying fcripture, againft which we cannot but enter our proteft. If the meaning of fcripture, the fcope of prophecy, and the defign of the facred hiftorian, as contained in any text, are all to be overlooked by the preacher, to be laid afide, and to give way to the unfupported fancies of a fportive imagination, or applied to the paffing occurrences in the political world, (through whatever true or diftorted medium thefe occurrences may be viewed,) who does not fee what a wide door is at once opened to the dangerous heretic, the wild enthufiaft, or the ignorant teacher, to obtrude their abfurd or unfupported dogmas inftead of the genuine fenfe of the word of God? In many of the fectarian preachers, we juftly condemn fuch a method of fpiritualifing, and allegorifing fcripture; and is it more allowable in them than in a learned doctor, and a prebendary of the church? We are rather induced to make this remark, becaufe it is with concern that we have difcovered an increafing propenfity in our

modern ſermoniſers, to depart from the obvious meaning of ſcriptural paſſages, and, inſtead of explaining them, to adapt them to the tranſient occurrences of the day, or the faſhionable tide of political ſentiment.

The uniform opinion entertained by our good old reformers and orthodox divines, was, that the church of Rome, with its perſecuting ſpirit and ſuperſtitious practices, was the Anti-Chriſt; and that he who filled the papal chair, was the man of ſin ſo emphatically deſcribed in ſcripture. But now, by our modern divines, particularly ſuch as are infuriated with zeal againſt the French nation and revolution, this ſentiment of our reformers is treated as antiquated, and only fit to be exploded. Hence, in the ſermon before us, by the man of ſin, Dr. Cole affects to diſcover, that not the Roman pontiff, but the atheiſtical revolutioniſing Voltaire, is meant, whom he deſcribes as 'the infamous Antichriſtian ſophiſt, the man whoſe memory muſt be deteſted and rued by generations yet unborn, that concentrated eſſence, and very abſtract of every thing in its nature diabolical.'....'This man of ſin, in the fullneſs of his iniquity, in the proud elevation of his profane apotheoſis in the antichriſtian capital, was, like Herod, immediately ſmitten by the hand of God; and, having ſuffered the lengthened agonies of unutterable remorſe, and frantic rage and fury, ruſhed into the awful preſence of the heavenly judge, whom he had inſulted, and the ſupreme God, whom he had ſo groſsly blaſphemed.'—Again, the preacher, when applying the *fullneſs of time* 'to the events now drawing to the concluſion and cataſtrophe of the ſtupendous drama of the day,' remarks, that

'The prophet Daniel ſpeaks thus in his ſublime prophetic language; "He ſhall ſpeak great words againſt the Moſt High, and ſhall wear out the ſaints of the Moſt High, and think to change times and laws." This is ſuppoſed, and with great appearance of probability, to be deſcriptive of antichriſt; and what can be more antichriſtian than the preſent Gallic uſurpation? Whatever may be the true interpretation, the words of the prophecy are too remarkable to eſcape the obſervation of ſerious and reflecting minds. The words of the prophet ſeem to allude to a general apoſtacy from Chriſtianity to paganiſm; and I am ſure the expreſſion of changing times, by the ſudden ſingular ſubſtitution of the new heathen calendar, for the Chriſtian æra, tending to obliterate every circumſtance commemorating the famous fullneſs of time, in which God ſent forth his ſon, ſeems ſtrongly to favour the interpretation above-mentioned, and to render the prophecy pointedly appropriate to the preſent momentous criſis, and eventful πληρωμα.' P. 11.

Beſides the paſſages already quoted, we find nothing in this diſcourſe which claims particular notice.

An Outline of the Evidences of Revealed Religion. By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. &c. 12mo. 6*d*. Johnson. 1797.

This manual will usefully refresh the memory, with regard to the principal points in dispute between the christian and the infidel. The arguments are clearly stated; and the whole may be said to form a good preparation for ulterior enquiry.

MEDICINE, &c.

A Lecture introductory to a Course of Popular Instruction on the Constitution and Management of the Human Body. By Thomas Beddoes, M. D. 8*vo*. 1*s*. 6*d*. Johnson. 1797.

This is a desultory discourse; and the author, omitting 'prodesse,' should have taken for his motto, 'delectare è pluribus unum.'

The Art of prolonging Life. By Christopher William Hufeland, M. D. Translated from the German. 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 10*s.* *Boards.* Bell. 1797.

The original of this work passed through our hands* some time ago; and as we felt great satisfaction in perusing it, we are pleased with its appearance in an English garb. The translation is in general faithful; and our English readers will now have an opportunity of forming, from their own observations, a just idea of a work which has been received with great approbation on the continent.

Miscellaneous Observations on the Effects of Oxygen on the Animal and Vegetable Systems; illustrated by Experiments, and interspersed with Chemical, Physiological, Pathological, and Practical Remarks; and an Attempt to prove why some Plants are Evergreen and others Deciduous, in the Climate of Great-Britain and Ireland. Part I. By Clement Archer, Esq. M. R. I. A. &c. 8*vo*. 3*s*. Dilly. 1798.

These observations are truely miscellaneous, and are expanded by too many remarks irrelevant or useless. The first remark, on the effects of electricity in bleeding, will admit an easy solution. We observed, on a former occasion, that electricity did not really increase the quantity of fluid discharged, but only its apparent rapidity. In this case, the blood, after two cups had been drawn from the lady, appeared to be thrown out in jets; in reality, it was electrified, and the particles repelled each other. In these electrical operations, hydrogen is formed; and this air gave a black colour to the blood in the third cup.

Mr. Archer explains the permanency of the leaves of some plants from their firmness and their power of respiring oxygen, even in the

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* See our XXth Vol. New Arr. p. 520.

dark: they consequently resist the cold of the winter. The circumstance and the explanation, however, require farther examination, especially as each militates against our author's opinion, that the pure air, expired by vegetables, arises from the decomposition of their water, by means of light. From another very indecisive experiment, Mr. Archer endeavours to show, that the irritability of plants arises from their oxygen: he only proves that it is connected with their healthy state.

Several more important experiments relate to the rise of sap in plants, which our author seems to think may occur partially, from the partial application of heat and light to any part of the trunk.

Various points relating to vegetation, to oxygen, the oxygenated marine acid, and bleaching, are superficially discussed. Almost all Mr. Archer's observations on these subjects have been anticipated; and the introduction of the theory of phlogiston, because the author first employed, though he has now relinquished it, extends the work by additions not very pleasing or instructive. The most important remarks are those of Mr. Roe on bleaching.

EDUCATION.

An Elementary Introduction to the Latin Grammar, with practical Exercises, after a new and easy Method, adapted to the Capacities of Young Beginners. 8vo. 3s. 6d. *Bound.* Boosey.

Authors frequently claim the merit of important novelty, when few (if any) traces of it appear in their publications. The present writer, for instance, affirms, that he 'has, in this introduction, pursued a method *entirely different* from any other of the kind.' The chief feature of his plan is, to give the learner a very early idea of syntax and composition, instead of leading him through a tedious course of acquiring words without knowing their real use and construction. The plan is worthy of approbation; but it resembles that which some former grammars have exhibited. Upon the whole, the execution of the work is not contemptible; but we are sorry to see it deformed with so many typographical errors, besides those which are noticed at the end of the volume.

The Elements of the Latin Tongue, with all the Rules in English, for the more ready Improvement of Youth. By the Rev. Robert Armstrong. 8vo. 2s. Griffiths. 1799.

Another Latin grammar now offers itself to our cursory notice. This is professedly the result of an attempt 'to comprise in one all the excellencies' of former works of the kind. We do not think, however, that the compiler has fully succeeded in that undertaking.

POETRY.

The Patrons of Genius: a Satirical Poem. With Anecdotes of their Dependents, Votaries, and Toad-Eaters. Part I. 4to. 2s. 6d. Parsons. 1798.

A more able satirist than the present has not appeared in this

ſatirical age; and we may add that one more ſevere never indulged his indignation. He attacks all parties with bitterneſs and ſtrength. The notes form the largeſt and beſt part of the book; but the poetry has more than common merit. We extract the commencement of the piece.

'Beat to the ground at life's meridian ſtage,
Like fruit mature by equinoctial rage;
O'erwhelm'd with ills, by many a care conſum'd,
Misfortune's child, to diſappointment doom'd;
Perplex'd, dejected, doubtful what to do,
I ſummon'd all my friends:—My friends were two;
One was Petronius, Caſſius one by name;—
'Twas but advice I wanted—and they came.
The firſt, endow'd with ev'ry gentle grace,
Smooth was his ſpeech, and ſmoother was his face;
Trim his apparel, courtier-like his air—
A wond'rous fav'rite of the young and fair.
Nor yet of worth or honour did he lack;
Strong, tho' complying, like a ſupple-jack.
'My other friend was hewn from ſterner ſtuff,
Rude, unrefin'd, impracticable, rough,
Beneath a miſanthrope's unſeemly cruſt
He hid a heart courageous, kind, and juſt:
Thought, war, and travel, and the hand of care,
Before the time had ſtripp'd his forehead bare;
Had robb'd his eyes of fire, his cheeks of bloom,
And o'er his viſage caſt a turbid gloom:
Yet ſtill with nerves unbroke, and brow elate,
Firm, proud, and patient, he derided fate.
'So the tall oak, by winds impetuous left
With mangled branches, and of leaves bereft,
Amid the tempeſt lifts its head on high,
And nods defiance at the threat'ning ſky.
'Theſe friends and I were met in cloſe divan;
And thus the tenor of their counſel ran:—

'PETRONIUS.

'May heav'n aſſiſt my friend!—a heart of ſteel
Hearing thy ſtory would be forc'd to feel:
Yet bleſs'd with talents and an active mind,
The road to fortune ſtill my friend ſhall find;
To ſmooth that road, implore ſome patron's aid—
A courtier's, truſt me, is a thriving trade—
Nor check aſpiring hope: but prune thy wing,
And perch thee near the palace of the king:
Thy merit and thy ſong ſhall reach his ear;
For thou canſt ſing what kings may deign to hear:
The beſt of kings, of patrons is the beſt:
Go aſk of Herſchel, and of rare Ben Weſt.

'CASSIUS.

'Vain thy advice. Though sweet the poet sing,
He never shall find favour with the king.
Is there not Pye? Whene'er the sun sets out,
Pye makes an ode, and when he turns about;
And yet he hardly earns enough to dine.
One hundred pounds—one butt of Malmsey wine—
Is all our sacred sov'reign can afford,
Tho' plump the privy-purse, and rich the royal hoard.
No: I would rather be condemn'd to grind
The groaning organ, and to live on wind;
Or to sing bawdy songs in Spital-square,
Than try by verse to gain a monarch's ear.
Herschel and West take better roads to rise,
King George's quarter-masters in the skies.
One, by anticipating heav'n's decrees,
Seats two dead princes on an angel's knees:
The other waits not till his master die,
But sticks him up *impromptu* in the sky,
Above the glorious sun three stories high.' P. I.

From the title we are led to expect a second part: in this we only object to the last note. A writer of such talents—indeed any writer—ought to have been ashamed of such indecorum. Let him attack public characters as boldly as he will; but the feelings of a woman,—and by his own assertion an amiable young woman,—it was cowardly, it was wicked, to insult.

Coombe Ellen: a Poem, written in Radnorshire, September 1798. *By the Rev. W. L. Bowles, A. M.* 4*to.* 2*s.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1798.

Mr. Bowles displays, in this poem, his usual taste and his usual feeling. We find in it nothing that we are inclined to condemn; and, on an author of such deserved repute, all panegyric is superfluous. It thus opens:

'Call the strange spirit that abides unseen
In wilds, and wastes, and shaggy solitudes;
And bid his dim hand lead thee through these scenes
That burst immense around! by mountains, glens,
And solitary cataracts, that dash
Through dark ravins; and trees, whose wreathed roots
O'er-hang the torrent's channell'd course; and streams,
That far below, along the narrow vale,
Upon their rocky way, wind musical.
'Stranger, if nature charm thee, if thou lov'st
To trace her awful steps, in glade or glen,
Or under covert of the rocking wood,
That sways its murmuring and mossy boughs

Above thy head; now, when the wind at times
Stirs its deep ſilence round thee, and the ſhower
Falls on the ſighing foliage: hail her here,
In theſe her haunts; and wrapt in muſings high,
Think that thou holdeſt converſe with ſome power
Inviſible and ſtrange, ſuch as of yore
Greece, in the ſhades of piney Mænalus,
The abode of Pan, or Ida's hoary caves,
Worſhipt; and our old Druids, 'mid the gloom
Of rocks and woods like theſe, with mutter'd ſhell
Invok'd, and the loud ring of choral harps.
' Haſt thou oft mourn'd the chidings of the world,
The ſound of her diſquiet, that aſcends
For ever, mocking the high throne of God?
Haſt thou in youth known ſorrow? Haſt thou droop'd,
Heart-ſtricken, over youth and beauty's grave,
And ever after thought on the ſad ſound
The cold earth made, which, caſt into the vault,
Conſign'd thy heart's beſt treaſure—" duſt to duſt?"
Here lapt into a ſweet forgetfulneſs,
Hang o'er the wreathed water-fall, and think
Thou art alone in this dark world and wide.' P. 5.

Julia; or Laſt Follies. 4to. 3s. 6d. *Boards.* Rivingtons. 1798.

Theſe are the trifles of one who is capable of better things. Such readers as are fond of amatory poems may find amuſement in this little volume. Its contents are all in one ſtrain; and any extract will ſerve as a ſample of the whole.

' To a Lady, who threatened to make the author an April fool.

' Why ſtrive, dear girl, to make a fool
Of one not wiſe before;
Yet having 'ſcaped from folly's ſchool
Would fain go there no more.

' Ah, if I muſt to ſchool again,
Wilt thou my teacher be?
I'm ſure no leſſon will be vain,
Which thou canſt give to me.

' One of thy kind and gentle looks,
Thy ſmiles devoid of art,
Avail beyond all crabbed books,
To regulate my heart.

' Thou needſt not call ſome fairy elf,
On any April day,
To make thy bard forget himſelf,
Or wander from his way.

'One thing he never can forget,
Whatever change may be,
The sacred hour when first he met,
And fondly gazed on thee.
'A seed then fell into his breast,
Thy spirit placed it there;
Need I, my Julia, tell the rest?
Thou seest the blossoms here.' p. 37.

Poems, chiefly in the Scottish Dialect. By Robert Burns. 2 Vols. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Cadell *and* Davies. 1798.

To all who can feel and understand poetry, these pleasing productions have long been familiar. A complete edition of all that Burns produced is announced for the benefit of his widow and children. We shall reserve our remarks till its appearance.

The Science of Ethics, a Poem in three Books, by Nason. 8vo. Bacon, Norwich. 1799.

'Hail beauteous nature! wond'rous art! distinct
In thee fair science splendid shines, and reigns
Entire. Can man behold unmov'd thy works,
The wisdom, order, bounty intermell'd
Harmonic through the world, and not desires
Inhale to know from whence they rose? Could chance
The plan create? Or has th' amazing scheme
Eternal been? No. Penetrate, peruse
The universe, a maker's seen throughout. The stars
Resplendent, min'rals, plants, and beasts, attest
Omniscient hand. Investigate his works;
The human frame anatomize; man's heart
Explore, religion hence is born, our bliss,
The cure of ev'ry mortal pain, sure guide
To virtue, and eternal life. Prepare
Astonish'd man to see thy God! Enthron'd
Profound in science, lo! he kind invites
Thy wrapt regard! Dread night appriz'd her glass
Is run, with wisdom obvious flow withdraws
Her clouds, another hemisphere she fleets
Away to irrigate with dews. The sky
Yet dun portends mutation strange. In th' east
A world of roses seems to bloom. In fond
Expectance waits the enthusiast soul, to view
The greatest work of God, eternal source
Of everlasting light and life. Swift beams
In rapid radiance strike the eye. The sun
Appears! O glorious sight!' p. 3.

Such is Nason's poetry. The dedication affords a curious specimen of his prose.

'Botta, if thy friend Nason had thought there could have been another man on earth more virtuous than thyself, this production should have been dedicated to him.'

Only the first book of this poem has yet appeared. Few readers, we believe, will have any inclination to see the second.

DRAMA.

Clavidgo, a Tragedy, in Five Acts, translated from the German of Goethe, Author of the Sorrows of Werter, &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1798.

The story of this play is partly founded on fact, being an incident which happened to the celebrated Beaumarchais while he was in Spain. There is something ridiculous in representing a living character upon the stage: Beaumarchais, however, would, we believe, willingly allow himself to be faithfully characterised in the young high-spirited Frenchman of the drama. The story is briefly this. Clavidgo has been betrothed to Maria, but forsakes her, being chiefly influenced on this occasion by the advice of a worldly-minded friend. On hearing this, Beaumarchais her brother hastens to Madrid, with a resolution of revenging the insult offered to his sister. Clavidgo's conduct rather proceeds from weakness than wickedness. He is filled with remorse, and signs a paper, in which he acknowledges himself to be a scoundrel, requesting only that Beaumarchais will not publish it till he has attempted to obtain the forgiveness of Maria. He has an interview with this lady, who pardons him and looks forward to happiness. In consequence of evil counsel, Clavidgo relapses into villany, accuses Beaumarchais of assaulting him, and procures an order for his arrest. This blow destroys Maria; and Clavidgo, returning home at night, sees her funeral.

The former part of the play seems to be feeble, though it abounds with that knowledge of human feelings by which Goethe is distinguished. The conclusion is admirable.

'*Clavidgo*. Dead! Maria dead! Torches there! her dismal attendants!—It is a trick of enchantment, a night vision, which terrifies me; which holds up to me a picture, in which I may see anticipated the end of all my treacheries. But there is still time—Still!——I tremble—my heart melts with horror! No! no! thou shalt not die—I come, I come!—Vanish, ye spirits of the night, which with your horrible terrors set yourselves in my way—*(He goes up to them)*. Vanish!—They remain! Ha! they look round after me! Woe! Woe is me! They are men like myself.—It is true! true!—Canst thou comprehend it? She is dead—It seizes me amid all the horror of midnight—the feeling—that she is dead. There she lies, the flowers at her feet—and thou —— O have mercy on me, God in heaven—I have

murdered her! Hide yourfelves, ye ftars, look not down! You, who have fo often beheld the villain, in feelings of the moft heart-felt happinefs, leave this threfhold; through this ftreet float along in golden dreams with mufic and fong, and enrapture his maiden liftening at the fecret cafement and lingering in tranfport. And now I fill the houfe with wailing and forrow—and this fcene of my blifs with the funeral-fong—Maria! Maria! take me with thee! take me with thee! *(A mournful mufic utters a few founds from within.)* They are beginning the way to the grave.—— Stop! Stop! Shut not the coffin—Let me fee her yet once—*(He runs up to the houfe)*—Ha! into whofe prefence am I rufhing? Whom to face amid their horrible forrows? Her friends! Her brother! whofe breaft is panting with raging grief. *(The mufic goes a fecond time.)* She calls me! fhe calls me! I come!—What anguifh is this which overwhelms me! What fhuddering withholds me!

SCENE III.

(The mufic goes the third time, and continues. The torches move before the door; three others come out to them, who range themfelves in order, to inclofe the funeral proceffion, which now comes out of the houfe. Six bearers carry the bier, upon which lies the coffin, covered. Gilbert and Buenco follow next in deep mourning.)

Clavidgo. *(Coming forward with majefty)* Halt!

Gilbert. What voice is that?

Clavidgo. Halt! *(The bearers ftop.)*

Buenco. Who dares to interrupt the folemn funeral?

Clavidgo. Set it down! *(The bearers fet it down.)*

Gilbert. Ha!

Buenco. Wretch! are thy deeds of fhame not yet ended? Is thy victim not fafe from thee in the coffin?

Clavidgo. No more! make me not frantic. The miferable are dangerous—I muft fee her—*(He tears off the pall and the lid of the coffin. Maria is feen lying within it, clad in white, her hands clafped before her—Clavidgo fteps back, and covers his face).*

Buenco. Wilt thou awake her, to murder her again?

Clavidgo. Poor mocker!—Maria! *(He falls down before the coffin.*——

SCENE IV.

Beaumarchais *comes up the ftreet.*

Beaumarchais. Buenco has left me. They fay fhe is dead. I muft fee her; fpite of hell, I muft fee her. Ha! torches! a funeral! *(He runs haftily up to it, gazes on the coffin, and falls down fpeechlefs. They raife him up; he is as if deprived of fenfe: Gilbert holds him.)*

Clavidgo. *(Who is ftanding on the other fide of the coffin)* Maria! Maria!

Beaumarchais. (*Springing up*) That is his voice. Who calls Maria? At the ſound of that voice what burning rage ſtarts into my veins!

Clavidgo. It is I.

Beaumarchais. (*Staring wildly around and graſping his ſword. Gilbert holds him.*)

Clavidgo. I fear not thy blazing eyes, nor the point of thy ſword. Oh! look here, here, on theſe cloſed eyes, theſe claſped hands.

Beaumarchais. Doſt *thou* ſhew *me* that ſight? (*He tears himſelf looſe, runs upon Clavidgo, who inſtantly draws—They fight—Beaumarchais pierces him through the breaſt.*)

Clavidgo. (*Sinking*) I thank thee, brother—Thou marrieſt us. (*He falls upon the coffin.*)' P. 87.

This part is worthy of the author of the Sorrows of Werter: higher praiſe it is perhaps impoſſible to beſtow.

Feudal Times; or, the Banquet-Gallery: A Drama, in two Acts. By George Colman, the younger. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell. 1799.

Mr. Colman's opinion of this drama is expreſſed in a lively manner. He ſays in his advertiſement,

' He who hopes to increaſe his reputation, (if he have any already) as a writer, by ſketching a mere vehicle for ſing-ſong, and ſhew,—is a blockhead. He who indites an elaborate criticiſm, on ſuch a vehicle,—is a blockhead;—or, he is worſe:—a malignant fellow, pretending to miſtake a dramatiſt's jerkin, for his beſt coat, that he may pick a hole in it.

' Be it known to you, *Meſſieurs!* that this ſame ſcribbling *in a jerkin*,—but, by the way it muſt not be ragged,—is beſt ſuited to ſome occaſions; and not at all diſreſpectful to the company.—To have aim'd at writing in *full dreſs*, in the preſent inſtance, would have been a waſte of wardrobe;—and, as idle and extravagant, as riding on horſeback, in Hyde Park, in a bag-wig and ſword.' P. 3.

As ' a mere vehicle for ſing-ſong and ſhow,' the preſent piece has all the merit that could be expected, and more than is uſually found in ſuch compoſitions. Even the trifles of Mr. Colman diſcover more genius than the ſerious labours of moſt of his dramatic competitors.

Poverty and Wealth. A Comedy, in five Acts. Tranſlated from the Daniſh of P. A. Heiberg, A. C. By C. H. Wilſon, Eſq. 8vo. 2s. Weſt. 1799.

We could almoſt imagine that this comedy was tranſlated with a view of proving that other communities can tolerate as much nonſenſe as the Britiſh nation. We ſcarcely ever peruſed a more contemptible play.

NOVELS, &c.

The Libertines: a Novel. 2 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 6*s. Boards.* Robinsons. 1798.

The author informs us that he first conceived the plan or rather the subject of this novel from reading the accounts of the Spanish and Portuguese inquisitions, those monstrous alliances of tyranny and superstition which have nearly reached the close of the eighteenth century, without being formally abolished. From some incidents related in those accounts, a fable has been constructed, which strongly interests the mind, and has a powerful tendency to promote an attachment to the milder system of ecclesiastic discipline which has distinguished our church since the reformation. The author seems apprehensive that an analogy may be discovered in different scenes and passages to the romance of the Monk: but the resemblance is not striking; and, in point of entertainment, this novel is equal, while it is far superior, in moral tendency, to that popular work.

A Tale of Rosamund Gray and old Blind Margaret. By Charles Lamb. Small 8*vo.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Lee *and* Hurst. 1798.

This little tale reminded us strongly of Mackenzie's style; and the imitation, we think, equals the original. The story is perhaps too simple: but it is so related as to invite a frequent perusal; and it abounds with passages which the reader will wish to remember, and which he will be the better for remembering. The genius and feeling with which it is written, will appear in our extract.

'I love to keep old friendships alive and warm within me, because I expect a renewal of them in the World of Spirits.

'I am a wandering and unconnected thing on the earth. I have made no new friendships, that can compensate me for the loss of the old—and the more I know mankind, the more does it become necessary for me to supply their loss by little images, recollections, and circumstances, of past pleasures.

'I am sensible, that I am surrounded by a multitude of very worthy people, plain-hearted souls, sincere, and kind.—But they have hitherto eluded my pursuit, and will continue to bless the little circle of their families and friends, while I must remain a stranger to them.

'Kept at a distance by mankind, I have not ceased to love them—and could I find the cruel persecutor, the malignant instrument of God's judgments on me and mine, I think I would forgive, and try to love him too.

'I have been a quiet sufferer. From the beginning of my calamities it was given to me, not to see the hand of man in them. I perceived a mighty arm, which none but myself could see, extended over me. I gave my heart to the purifier, and my will to the sovereign will of the universe. The irresistible wheels of destiny passed on in their everlasting rotation,—and I suffered myself to be carried along with them, without complaining.

'Allan told me, that for some years past, feeling himself dif-

engaged from every perfonal tye, but not alienated from human fympathies, it had been his tafte, his humour he called it, to fpend a great portion of his time in hofpitals and lazar houfes.

'He had found a wayward pleafure, he refufed to name it a virtue, in attending a defcription of people, who had long ceafed to expect kindnefs or friendlinefs from mankind, but were content to accept the reluctant fervices, which the oftentimes unfeeling inftruments and fervants of thefe well-meant inftitutions deal out to the poor fick people under their care.

'It is not medicine,—it is not broths and coarfe meats, ferved up at a ftated hour with all the hard formalities of a prifon,—it is not the fcanty dole of a bed to die on—which dying man requires from his fpecies.

'Looks, attentions, confolations,—in a word, fympathies, are what a man moft needs in this awful clofe of mortal fufferings. A kind look, a fmile, a drop of cold water to the parched lip—for thefe things a man fhall blefs you in death.' P. 124.

After this fpecimen, praife would be fuperfluous.

Eftelle. By M. de Florian, Author of Numa Pompilius, &c. &c. with an Effay upon Paftoral. Tranflated from the French, by Mrs. Sufanna Cummyng. 2 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 5*s.* Wright. 1798.

This paftoral has long been a favourite on the continent, where it has been ranked with the beft modern efforts of the kind. But the writer has deviated fo much from the common rules of paftorals, that we know not how to compare his work with the productions of Sannazarius, or of Gefner; and it does not greatly refemble the paftoral *drama*. It is rather a kind of romance in which the manners, fentiments, and characters, are thofe of the fabled paftoral days; but, in whatever clafs it may be ranked, its ftyle is rich and various, and the moral pure; and it cannot fail to afford ample gratification to *fentimental* readers. The tranflator has performed her tafk with more fkill than we fhould have expected from a firft attempt.

The Secluded Man; or, the Hiftory of Mr. Oliver. By the Rev. Mr. Holder, (Cantilena Captivitatis) 2 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 6*s. Sewed.* Lane. 1798.

We are forry to fee the name of a clergyman, and, we believe, a philologift, in the title-page of fo dull a novel as the prefent. We do not mean to fay that we have not perufed *worfe* performances, and fuch as were likely to produce more injury than merely a wafte of time: the latter confequence, however, is fufficient to make us regret that the Secluded Man has not remained in a ftate of *feclufion* from the public.

Statira, or the Mother. A Novel, by the Author of Interefting Tales. 12*mo.* 3*s.* Lane. 1798.

This volume contains two novelettes, nearly of the fame length, founded on the paffion of jealoufy. That which is entitled Statira is the more interefting and inftructive; the other is extravagant and feeble. They feem to have been tranflated from the German.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

An Oblique View of the Grand Conſpiracy againſt Social Order; or a candid Inquiry, tending to ſhew what Part the Analytical, the Monthly, the Critical Reviews, and the New Annual Regiſter, have taken in that Conſpiracy. By the Author of a Conciſe Sketch of the intended Revolution. 8vo. 1s. Wright. 17,8.

Involved in an accuſation of a very atrocious nature, we cannot examine this work without the imputation, if we ſhould pronounce that cenſure which it ſeems to us to deſerve, of being partial in our own cauſe. We are confident, however, that ſuch a work as the preſent can make no impreſſion whatever upon the reflecting part of the community; and we ſhall content ourſelves with placing before our readers ſome of the chief grounds on which the writer preſumes to think that we are deſtitute of all love to our country, as well as of all regard to our own intereſts.

'I threw out an intimation at an early part of this inquiry, 'that the Critical Review's affected oppoſition to Socinian principles might poſſibly be adopted to give a leſs ſuſpected and therefore a more extenſive influence to its political reaſonings; and in the following extracts may be found ſome exiſtent grounds for this ſuppoſition. "We congratulate Mr. Simeon on his mode of analyſing a ſermon, which we doubt not will in due time lead him to ſound knowledge. He will by degrees examine more accurately every poſition; and he will not, ſome few years hence, ſpeak ſo poſitively and upon ſuch weak grounds on eternal damnation, as he has done in the ſkeleton of this diſcourſe." I think this not the language of a Review zealous for the peculiar, the diſcriminating doctrines of chriſtianity; and it is rather improbable that ſo profeſſed an infidel as Pr—ſtley ſhould be held up in ſuch partial language as the following, by a periodical publication, really inimical to his principles, either political, or religious. "Every liberal and humane mind, to whatever political party it may incline, will rejoice that the author of this work has found an aſylum abroad; and every chriſtian, of whatever denomination, will be pleaſed to ſee that, ſtill zealous for the cauſe of religion, Dr. Pr—ſtley reſiſts the attacks of the infidels, on the other ſide of the Atlantic." And again, "The ſtyle and manner of Dr. Pr—ſtley are well known: equally perſpicuous, he places his ſentiments in the plaineſt manner before his hearers." P. 19.

We never knew before, that eternal damnation was a *peculiar* and *diſcriminating* doctrine of the *goſpel*—that is, of the *good tidings* of a ſaviour to mankind: and we imagine that our author has never given himſelf the trouble of reflecting on the eternal damnation which formed a part of the pagan ſyſtem long before the introduction of chriſtianity. He probably has never heard of thoſe infernal regions where

Sedet *æternumque* ſedebit
Infelix Theſeus.

But, even if we had interpoſed our judgment on the queſtion of eternal damnation, which we have not done in the paſſage quoted,

would that be a ſufficient argument that we are ready to conſpire againſt ſocial order? Can it be ſaid that biſhop Newton, and many other ornaments of the church of England, were enemies of all religion and ſocial order becauſe they differed from Mr. Simeon and this writer with regard to the meaning of the word *eternal?* We are, however, happy to find by the concurrent teſtimony of reſpectable divines, that our conjecture reſpecting Mr. Simeon's proficiency in ſound judgment is ſtrengthened by ſubſequent experience. If his preaching was at one time thought to lean too much to that claſs which is generally termed methodiſtical, his mode of analyſing ſeems to be every day bringing him nearer to the bounds preſcribed by the ſobriety of the church of England.

We cannot retract our ſentiment, that the liberal of all parties would rejoice in the ſafety of Dr. Prieſtley from popular outrage. This implies no approbation of the opinions, either religious or political, which he has adopted; and, indeed, far from being conſidered as the doctor's advocates, we have received ſome admonitions, intimating that we did not hold the balance entirely even between him and his antagoniſts, and that we too much favoured the latter party. To expect abſolute perfection from any man or ſet of men, is ridiculous. We have endeavoured to do our duty, convinced that, whatever may have been our failings, they cannot have ariſen from the motives which this writer wiſhes to inſinuate.

In the next paſſage we approve Dr. Prieſtley's zeal in the cauſe of religion; and it is to be obſerved, that the queſtion is not on the peculiar doctrines of chriſtianity, in which we differ from him, but on the cauſe of religion againſt deiſm and atheiſm. A true chriſtian, we repeat, will be pleaſed with every effort to ſubvert the cauſe of error. If the pious Moravian ſhould convert the Greenlander from his idolatry, ſhall we not commend his zeal, though it may not be tempered with all the prudence which in our eſtimation would render it more beneficial?

Perhaps our readers will be aſtoniſhed at the waſte of ſo much time on ſo frivolous a ſubject. They will not expect us to enter into an examination of Dr. Prieſtley's ſtyle, or to impugn the critical authority of the learned Mr. Cobbett. We have indeed taken more notice of this contemptible publication than it deſerves; but it becomes us, in times like the preſent, to aſſert our independence, to declare that we will be ſwayed by no faction whatever, and that, whether we are accuſed on the one hand as parties in a conſpiracy, which, if real, we ſhould deteſt, or, on the other, as too ſtrenuous advocates for the Scriptures againſt the Age of Reaſon and the pretended rights of man, we ſhall perſiſt, as far as human infirmity will permit, in the ſame courſe, unbiaſſed by affection to particular writers, and weighing with impartiality the arguments which may be adduced in favour of any opinion.

Tales of the Hoy; interſperſed with Song, Ode, and Dialogue. By Peter Pindar, Eſq. 4to. 3s. Richardſon.

The quaintneſs of this writer, as we have ſo long been accuſtomed

to it, ceafes to produce the effect of wit. His productions, therefore, now neceffarily appear to difadvantage; and thefe tales, we think, may juftly be reckoned among his worft pieces. We muft object alfo to the increafed indelicacy of Peter's writings; a fault to which he has always been prone, and which loudly calls for reprehenfion. There is, however, much of his original merit in the Tales of the Hoy—witnefs the dialogue which follows a common-place ballad upon a failor's death.

'*Captain Noah.* Charming, charming! a thoufand pities fuch a fine fellow fhould be meat for the fharks! Brooke-Watfon-legs are good enough for them! Pity! pity! but it ca'n't be helped—a man is no more than a fparrow with God! A ftrange world this! very bad world indeed in fome parts—hogged the moment it was launched—a number of rotten timbers! I think it muft have been built by contract—yes! in fome private dock or other, fure as fate! But we can't help it—if the fhip be leaky, we muft keep the pumps agoing! All's one a hundred hence! What bufinefs have we to die? Fine fellow Xerxes, when he cried to think that in a few years not a man of all his armies would be alive. Fine thought—pretty thought—natural too! I fhould like to have fhaken a paw with Xerxes, poor fellow—but then I fhould not have been here, ladies and gemmen, to enjoy your good company! To order! to order!—Mafter Squibb, tumble up! examine your wallet, and give us fomething good!

'*Squibb.* My dear friend, my hearty honeft hoft of the hoy, principal proprietor of the prince of pacquets, upon my foul I have nothing to offer—not a bit of a ballad—not a flice of a fong—nor a tittle of a tale, to enliven the evening, and conjure up conviviality.

'*Captain Noah.* What! not you, Squibb? the prince of paragraph-makers! the nabob of news! the imp of invention! the lion of learning! and the very paper-kite of politics! What, you aground?

'*Squibb.* Let me perifh, my dear friend, if I poffefs a particle of power; I really, my dear friend, am as ftupid as that ftupid ftock, my hum-drum chum, Barnaby Bufflehead, who never fo much as blundered on a bon-mot!

' '*Captain Noah.* Come, come, no palavering me over, with my dear friend, and dear friend; I hate the word, there's fo much hypocrify in the world. Friendfhip is a filent gentlewoman—makes no parade. The true heart dances no hornpipes on the tongue—a p-x on palaver, fay I—fo give us fomething, Mifter Modefty, if you pleafe.

'*Squibb.* Upon my honour, captain Noah.

'*Captain Noah.* A bumper of falt water for mafter Squibb!

'*Squibb.* Captain Noah! Captain Noah!

'*Captain Noah.* Two bumpers of falt water to mafter Squibb!

'*Squibb.* Upon my soul, captain Noah, this is a very serious affair, d-mme!

'*Captain Noah.* Three bumpers of salt water to master Squibb—and then hey for Coventry!

'*Squibb.* Well, I'll sing! I'll sing!' P. 51.

A Letter to the Anti-Jacobin Reviewers. By Charles Lloyd, Author of Edmund Oliver, &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. Arch. 1799.

Mr. Lloyd remonstrates with the Anti-Jacobin Reviewers upon their misrepresentation of the tendency of his Edmund Oliver.

'I should not, gentlemen,' (he says) 'have thus addressed you on my own account. I expect to live down the influence of your imputations, and of imputations tenfold more important than yours; but I have friends whom I esteem and love, and who esteem and love me, that are warmly attached to the constitution, to its church, and its king: they disinterestedly suffer for the misrepresentation contained in your review, and to satisfy their repeated intreaties, I have forced myself to the task of addressing you.' P. 16.

The motive which Mr. Lloyd avows is laudable: but we wish that he had avoided the violence and the jargon of the men whom he is addressing. We observe the same fault in this letter which we censured in his Edmund Oliver—an unjust and intemperate aversion to those whom he calls 'modern democrats.' His own opinions are expressed with eloquence and force in the following scene, extracted (we are informed) from an unpublished manuscript:

'Colvil *and* Father Le Charier, *an emigrant priest.*

'*Le Charier.* Said you so, Colvil? You deplore, then, the fate of my wretched country?

'*Colvil.* As I would the fate of any, where more liberty exists than there is virtue to support it.

'*Le Charier.* Oh, sir, it is the fashion among many in this island, to affect to envy their neighbours across the sea! No laws, no religion, no public or private confidence!—What must be the state of a nation where the whim, the humour of the moment, and the most extravagant licentiousness of desire, alone stimulate to action?

'*Colvil.* Le Charier, our mad and modern speculatists would reverse the order of nature; would efface, with a sacrilegious impiety, the character which the Maker of this world has so evidently imprest upon it—the character of a *mysterious imperfection!* As for myself, when I consider the infinity of elements, the contrariety of energies, that are at work in this scene, not made for mortal explanation; I am only surprised at their wonderful adaption and order! Is there an evil not teeming with a benefit? An abortion in nature, not capable of assuming a new and a better form? We accuse men – institutions, as if they were the authors of evil. That very spirit of bitterness, of accusation, proves that the source lies deeper—in our own hearts.

'*Le Charier.* Since my earliest youth I have been visited with

many calamities—but in none of them could I trace the hand of man; a mightier than he has scourged me!—I have bowed myself down in contentedness; I have learned humility,—and amid all my afflictions, my religion has been a sure comforter!

'*Colvil.* Yet your afflictions have not been few or light. Le Charier, I smile at the puny sufferings of my fellow-men! Nothing, however, will be perfect or stable here. Perhaps it is intended that communities and empires should pass through the stages of youth, maturity, and old age, which characterise the life of man! Virtue is not an affair of precept; no system will plant it in the heart!—Trial, difficulty—discipline, over which man has no power, alone can produce it! Hence it will exist in the youth, in the simplicity of a nation just emerging from obscurity, through the salutary process of a long desolation. In its vigour the equipoise between its virtues, its liberty, and wealth, still remain; however its education is ended. Difficulty, and the hope of a somewhat to be gained, those grand delegates of omnipotence, have withdrawn themselves. Contemplate a few generations, the equipoise is gone! The prone desires of human nature must creep in; its wealth and liberties will tyrannise over its virtues; the divine may lament from the unfrequented temple, the legislator may thunder from the senate-house—'twill be in vain!—Better dream of imprisoning the winds! The mandate of destruction is gone forth—the redeeming arm of chastisement has shrouded itself in thick darkness!—that people is doom'd to fall! 'Tis not its kings, its rulers that have precipitated it! It but takes, like other human and mutable things, a new and downward station in the eternal wheel of destiny!—Let us, then, tremble, and keep aloof. These things are registered in the awful secrets of Heaven!

'*Le Charier.* Talk ever thus. I am one spited by the fortunes of this world; yet do I love the world, and my brethren who inhabit it. It soothes me thus to trace an Almighty Power in all things!

'*Colvil.* So it is, my friend. The fortunate alone are they who complain!—Health, happiness, and a somewhat of virtue, form the general experience of man: hence we talk of their opposites, and he who has the fewest of these opposites, talks with the loudest and bitterest tongue! 'Tis a strange exception which he cannot brook!—But enough; you know what has led us to this—'twas your request to be informed of my intention with regard to the poor children under your care.——Le Charier, you understand me not. Knowing that I am wealthy, and perceiving that I devote none of that wealth to my own enjoyment; and moreover, being acquainted with some of my wayward schemes, with regard to the more unfortunate of my brethren; you had imbibed, together with those around you, a suspicion that I had enlisted myself as one of that light, thoughtless, and self-confident crew, who dream that a community without laws is a community without vices—well, still let them dream! Yet heaven grant that they may be interrupted in their course, till their own virtues justify their conclusions.' P. 34.

The subsequent passage is in the Anti-Jacobin Review. 'This Mr. Charles Lloyd we conceive to be one of the twin-bards who unite their impotent efforts to propagate their principles, which are alike marked by folly and wickedness, in a kind of baby language, which they are pleased to call blank verse.' The poems entitled Blank Verse are characterised by an uniform spirit of piety; and in Mr. Lamb's part of the volume there is not a single expression which can be tortured into a political meaning. We wonder that Mr. Lloyd should hope to convince men who, it is evident from this extract, deal in wilful calumny, and condemn what they have not read.

The British Nepos; or Youth's Mirror: being Select Lives of Illustrious Britons, who have been distinguished by their Virtues, Talents, or remarkable Progress in Life, with Incidental and Practical Reflections. Written purposely for the Use of Schools, and carefully adapted to the Situations and Capacities of British Youth. By William Mavor, LL.D. 12mo. 4s. 6d. *Bound.* Law. 1798.

The biography of illustrious men deserves a more distinguished rank than it has hitherto occupied in the system of British education; and we are happy to observe that the plan of Mr. Mavor has been employed on a subject so importantly connected with the impressions of the youthful mind. This publication may, at first view, seem superfluous to those who recollect a work called the British Plutarch; but we think that Mr. Mavor's *Nepos* has some advantages to recommend it to extensive circulation. It is compendious, and includes those prominent characters of British excellence with which it is chiefly desirable for our youth to be acquainted.

The style in which the lives are written may justly be commended; and the author introduces them by a judicious preface.

Christ the Life of his People. A Sermon preached at the Lord's Day Evening Lecture, in Broad Street, near Moorfields, January 14, 1798. *By John Martin.* 12mo. 6d. Martin. 1798.

There is nothing worthy of particular notice in this discourse, except one sentence, which has given great offence to many of the dissenters.

'I fear too, yea, I believe, were the French to come, and likely to prevail, that some, if not many, both baptists, pædobaptists, and others, would join them.' P. 29.

In consequence of these and some similar expressions, the subscribers to the Broad-street lecture, at a general meeting, adopted the following resolutions:

'Resolved, That it is the opinion of this meeting, that the expressions used upon that occasion, are an ill-founded calumny, and have a tendency to bring the dissenting interest into undeserved disgrace.

'Carried. (with only one dissenting voice.)

'Resolved, That we consider Mr. Martin as no longer a pro-

per person to join with the other ministers in the services of this lecture.

'Carried. (with only two dissenting voices.)' p. 10.

We have so frequently expressed our disapprobation of the mention of politics in the pulpit, that, however we may reprobate the severity of the meeting upon this occasion, we cannot justify a preacher who takes up the time of his auditors with such insinuations.

A Letter to the Rev. John Martin; occasioned by his late Publication of a Sermon preached in Broad Street, January 14, 1798. *8vo.* *6d.* Button.

A dull letter, on a very uninteresting subject—the political opinions of John Martin, delivered from a pulpit in Broad-street!

Remarks on a Letter to the Rev. John Martin, occasioned by his late Publication of a Sermon preached in Broad Street, January 14, 1798. *8vo.* *6d.* Button. 1798.

The writer in some measure vindicates Mr. Martin's expressions; but he neither throws any new light upon the subject, nor writes in such a manner as may bring the contending parties of dissenters to a reconciliation. It is to be wished, for the sake of peace and charity, that they would settle the dispute among themselves, without any farther appeal to the nation through the medium of the press.

An Address to the Board of Baptist Ministers. By John Martin. *8vo.* *1s.* Martin. 1798.

The baptist ministers have a club at the Jamaica coffee-house. Of this society the author was a member; and, in consequence of the expressions quoted in a preceding article, these resolutions were voted:

'1. That to the best of our knowledge, and belief, the representation Mr. Martin has given of the dissenters, does not apply to any individual, in any of our protestant dissenting churches.

'Resolved unanimously,

'2. That Mr. Martin's representation, not appearing to be founded in fact, is considered by us as highly calumnious.

'Resolved *nem. con.*

'One only of the brethren being neuter.' p. 7.

The club, without doubt, had as good a right to say that no individual dissenter would join the French, as their companion had to express his fears on the contrary side of the question: but we hope that the second resolution may never be brought to the test; and unless an invasion should take place, it is not likely to appear whether Mr. Martin's representation was founded on a sufficient knowledge of the temper of the society. The truth of the case seems to be, that the preacher was too intemperate in the pulpit, and his brethren out of the pulpit; and we, as indifferent spectators, recommend to both parties, for their serious perusal and meditation, the thirteenth chapter of St. Paul's First Epistle to the Corinthians.

APPENDIX

TO THE

TWENTY-FIFTH VOLUME

OF THE

NEW ARRANGEMENT

OF THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Recherches sur la Géographie systématique et positive des Anciens, pour servir à l'Histoire de la Géographie ancienne; par P. F. T. Gosselin, de l'Institut National de France. Paris. 1798.

Inquiries into the systematic and precise Geography of the Ancients, tending to illustrate the History of ancient Geography; by Gosselin, a Member of the National Institute of the French Republic. 2 *Vols.* 4*to.* 1*l.* 16*s. in Boards.* Imported by De Bosse.

M. Gosselin's first work, Géographie des Grecs analysée, was calculated to form a new æra in the science, so far as the ancients were acquainted with the globe, or as their descriptions could be applied to our own matured and extensive knowledge. The author traced, with a minute and scientific accuracy, the attainments of the Greeks in that branch of study, and, with persevering diligence, examined their measures, thus bringing the very elements of their computation within the reach of our judgments. Of this work, mentioned with a cold respect by Dr. Robertson, and occasionally quoted with undistinguishing carelessness by other authors, we gave a full account in the year 1791 *; and recommended an English version. It has, however, engaged little of the attention of our geographers; and the same listless apathy, with re-

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* See our IId Vol. New Arr. p. 488.

gard to the extent of the ancient geographical knowledge, has continued to prevail. We hope to be more fortunate in exciting attention to the preſent volumes.

The analyſis of the Grecian geography deſerved and obtained a prize, as the moſt ſatisfactory compariſon of the geographical ſyſtems of Strabo and Ptolemy—the ſubject propoſed by the academy of Inſcriptions and Belles Lettres. The memoirs contained in the volumes before us, and ſome others which may be ſoon expected, were deſtined for the collections of that academy, already rich in philological and other learned diſquiſitions. The ſuppreſſion of the ſociety diſperſed the members, and interrupted the publication; but the preſent rulers of the ſtate encouraged M. Goſſelin to add his memoirs to the former ſtock.

The inquiries of this writer have two objects. One is to reſtore the ſyſtems of geography, publiſhed at different times by the ancients: five, of which only confuſed traces remained, have been already re-eſtabliſhed; and our author intends to proceed to others, which may in future be diſcovered. Their elucidation is, he thinks, neceſſary to explain numerous difficulties which occur in reading the works of the hiſtorians and geographers of antiquity; and they will be ſtill more intereſting, when it may be in our power to unite them, by aſcertaining the various epochs of the hiſtory of aſtronomy. His ſecond object is to follow the ancient navigators and travellers, to aſcertain the principal places which they viſited, and fix the limits of their diſcoveries.

In the progreſs of theſe memoirs, it is propoſed to conduct the reader, with 'the compaſs in his hand,' along thoſe coaſts of Europe, Aſia, and Africa, which the ancients frequented. M. Goſſelin begins his career from Africa, paſſes to the ſouthern coaſts of Aſia, and thence to the interior parts of that continent, to point out the limits of the undiſputed knowledge which the Greeks and Romans had of the country, and to ſhow where the Seres, with whom they traded, were ſituated. He then examines the northern coaſts of Europe, and finiſhes the preſent publication with a complete periplus of the Mediterranean, pointing out the courſe of the nations and colonies which have ſucceſſively peopled its banks or its numerous iſlands. A few vacancies only will then remain, which will be filled up in the concluding memoirs. A plan ſo comprehenſive, requiring conſiderable learning, diligent examination, and perſevering induſtry, we ſhould deſpair of ſeeing complete, if much had not been done in the volumes before us, and if we had not already a very advantageous ſpecimen of the talents, adapted to this labour, in the analyſis already noticed.

The firſt memoir relates to the ſyſtem of Hipparchus; and, if it poſſeſſed no other merit, it would deſerve our attention from the diligent collection of the fragments of this geographer, who firſt gave a form and conſiſtency to his ſcience by reſting it on aſtronomical obſervations. M. Goſſelin, though he defends Hipparchus againſt the criticiſms of Strabo, is not blind to his errors, which, though not very numerous, are important. The memoir itſelf is filled with numerical diſquiſitions and compariſons, which do not render it intereſting to the general reader, but which enhance its value to the ſcientific geographer.

After mentioning the general merits of Hipparchus, in aſcertaining the ſituation of places by the different times of the eclipſes of the ſun and moon, M. Goſſelin ſtates the circumſtance in which Pliny and Strabo diſagree with regard to his opinions. The latter obſerves, that Hipparchus like Eratoſthenes, admitted the diviſion of the circle into 360 parts (the Indian method), each of which was computed to conſiſt of 700 ſtadia, ſo that the circumference of the globe conſiſted of 252,000 of theſe ſtadia. Yet, ſays Pliny, he afterwards added ſomething leſs than 25,000 ſtadia to the former number. This contradiction to the whole ſyſtem of Hipparchus, who ſeems to reſt in every part of his work on the computation of 700 ſtadia to a degree, has been long noticed and variouſly accounted for. M. Goſſelin ſhows the errors of each explanation, and, after a minute inveſtigation, adds the following concluſion.

'After ſo many defective attempts to explain a paſſage in Pliny, may it not be concluded that the Roman naturaliſt miſtook the point? We may in other reſpects obſerve, 1ſt, That Pliny's compilations of the works of Eratoſthenes and Hipparchus were often made without underſtanding them, as appears by his marking, in emphatical terms, circumſtances not ſurpriſing, even in his own æra; 2dly, that, as no other ancient author—not even Strabo, who had more deeply ſtudied the works of Hipparchus than Pliny—ſaid any thing of ſuch a quotation, a doubt of its authenticity may reaſonably be entertained; 3dly, that the words, "a *little leſs* than 25,000 ſtadia," ſhow that this was not the language of Hipparchus.

'If, after theſe reflections, it be contended, that Hipparchus made the circumference of the earth, in any circumſtances, more than 252,000 ſtadia, no other explanation can be given than that, after the example of Eratoſthenes, he occaſionally added as many ſtadia as were neceſſary to obtain fractions more manageable in his ſubdiviſions. This idea is ſupported by a paſſage in Marcianus Heracleotes, intimating that Era-

toſthenes made the greateſt circumference of the earth 259,200 ſtadia—that is, 720 ſtadia in a degree, 12 in a minute, and $\frac{1}{5}$ in each ſecond—which would greatly ſimplify the calculations both in latitude and longitude. If this be true, the text of Pliny muſt be corrected in this manner; and, however great the change, we ſhould thus obtain the interpretation of a paſſage otherwiſe inexplicable.

'We think, however, that Pliny or his copyiſts were in an error, and that Hipparchus made no change in the numbers of Eratoſthenes. The work, in which it was of moſt importance to announce and employ his correction, was undoubtedly that in which he publiſhed his table of climates, ſince he there reprehended Eratoſthenes in ſeveral points; and a reform in the meaſure of the earth would have been ſufficient authority for his criticiſm. Strabo affirms, on the contrary, that to eſtabliſh the diſtances, in the direction of the meridian of Meroe, Hipparchus employed ſtadia of 700 to a degree.'

The formation of the table of the climates of Hipparchus, and the conſtruction of his chart, were taſks of labour and importance. The geographer had only the imperfect abſtract of Strabo, who, prejudiced by his opinion that the globe was not habitable beyond 54° north, neglected to notice thoſe points which Hipparchus had eſtabliſhed beyond it. The chart of the globe, according to this geographer's ſyſtem, is a valuable acquiſition. The minute details and corrections cannot be abridged. One opinion, which had a great influence on his ſyſtem, may be mentioned. He ſuppoſed that the ocean did not form a continued ſea, but that iſthmi divided it, forming many diſtinct baſins. This idea was derived from Seleucus of Babylon, who, referring probably to the different heights of the tides, remarked, that the ocean did not, in every part, offer the ſame appearances. This ſyſtem led him and other ancient geographers to extend the weſtern ſhores of Africa, indefinitely, into the Atlantic ocean, to meet the Indian coaſt, or ſome other unknown country. This doctrine, which was a leading tenet in the ſchool of Alexandria, may have induced the geographers of the middle ages to inſert indeterminately, in their charts, iſlands in the Atlantic under the name of Antilia (the oppoſite iſlands), long before the diſcovery of America.

The next memoir bears the title of Inquiries into the Geographical Knowledge of the Ancients on the Weſtern Coaſts of Africa. With this view M. Goſſelin examines the periplus of Hanno, that of Scylax and Polybius, the tables of Ptolemy, and the different traditions concerning the iſles of the Atlantic. All theſe remains of antiquity ought to be conſidered to-

gether: unfortunately they have been divided; and thofe who have examined the periplus of Hanno, have not noticed that of Polybius (mentioned by Pliny), who made the fame voyage, and fixed, by itinerary meafures, the diftances which the Carthaginian general eftimated by days' fail. All thefe are now brought together; and they confiderably illuftrate each other. Hanno's mode of computation is indeed uncertain; and his daily navigation has been greatly over-rated. By a careful examination of the progrefs of modern navigators in ftrange feas, compared with the pofitive evidence of Scylax, refpecting the ancient rate of failing, M. Goffelin thinks it highly probable, that the common day's fail of the Carthaginian fleet could not far exceed two hundred ftadia or from fifteen to twenty geographical miles. This muft greatly fhorten the reputed extent of the voyage, which M. Goffelin would reduce much within the diftance of Cape Bojador.

Our geographer has tranflated the Periplus, which he has alfo illuftrated with a commentary. Of courfe he confiders it as a genuine fragment of ancient geography, with the exception of the introductory part. The firft error, which geographers have committed, is, he thinks, by not attending to the fituation of Calpe and Abila, the pillars of Hercules. Thefe are far within the ftraits; and from them the Mediterranean was always meafured. Hanno exprefsly fays, that, having founded the city of Thymiaterion, he reached the promontory of Soloe by a weftern courfe. Thymiaterion was therefore on the northern coaft of Africa, on the fite of old Tangier, and Soloe was Cape Spartel. Almoft every ancient geographer has defcribed Soloe as the point whence the coaft of Africa trends to the fouth, fuppofed by Bougainville to be the modern Cape Bojador.

The pofition of the ifland Cerne, as defcribed by Hanno, has occafioned great labour to every commentator, perhaps without much reafon; for Hanno does not fay that it is oppofite to Carthage, but that he judged it, from his failing, to be fo. If the former pofitions are true, and they are fortified both by reafon and authority, M. Goffelin muft be right in fuppofing Cerne to be the little ifland Fedal: that the diftance fhould appear equal from Carthage to the Pillars, and thence to Cerne, though really unequal, may perhaps be accounted for, from Hanno's failing, in the firft part, along known coafts, and, in the fecond, in feas with which he was not fo well acquainted. The whole of the paffage, however, is involved in difficulty. On turning to the original, we find the paffage, which relates to the oppofition to Carthage, thus expreffed; εῴκει γαρ ὁ πλους—the navigation feemed to be fimilar.

In the gulf, in which Cerne is placed, Hanno aſcended two rivers, or rather, as we think, the ſame river, in one part expanded into a lake. This is at preſent the lake of the Negroes, which formerly communicated with the ſea. All the lakes and rivers of Africa ſeem to have contained crocodiles, which diminiſh in number proportionally with the increaſe of the human race; and we need not go to the Senegal for theſe devouring reptiles.

In the twelve days' ſail from Cerne, the navigators could not have advanced much above 3° 30′ of latitude. They arrived at a cape, which anſwers to Cape Ger; and the gulf which they diſcovered on doubling it, was that of St. Croix. The fires which they there ſaw were thoſe mentioned by Bruce, of burning graſs. The deſcription is ſo different from that of the fires afterwards obſerved, which were evidently volcanic, that it is neceſſary to point out the two kinds.

After doubling another cape, called by them the Weſtern Horn, which appears to be Cape Agalon, they met with a gulf, which contained ſome low iſlands; and, during four days' ſail, obſerved the volcanic fires on the coaſt. The whole of this coaſt is ſtill obſerved to be volcanic. A navigation of three days to the ſouth carried them to the Southern Horn, Cape Non; and the Gorillæ, beyond which they did not proceed, were ſituated on the ſhores of a gulf juſt within it.

We have entered more at length into our author's explanation of this ancient narrative, as it proceeds on grounds equally juſt and ſcientific; and the whole of this navigation is reduced to the river Non, 2° to the north of Cape Bojador. Other circumſtances ſupport this opinion. The winds, on the coaſt of Africa, are generally to the weſt; and to double Cape Bojador, even with the aſſiſtance of the compaſs, was ſo difficult, that, for a great part of the fifteenth century, it baffled the ſkill and perſeverance of the Portugueſe navigators. Indeed, if ancient mariners proceeded as far as Hanno is ſuppoſed to have extended his voyage, the torrid zone muſt have been known to be habitable.

The Periplus of Scylax corroborates that of Hanno. Lixus he indeed places before the promontory of Soloe; but he has evidently given this name, by miſtake, to another river; and the Lixus of Hanno he calls Xion, an appellation not very different, if the initial A be omitted.

The Periplus of Polybius is given in a confuſed manner by Pliny; but, in different parts, there are ſufficient data to fix ſpots, which ſerve as ſtandards of compariſon; and they ſtrongly ſupport our author's ſyſtem. Polybius ſeems not to have proceeded ſo far as Hanno; for the diſtances, though at firſt accurately marked, are afterwards omitted, and 'days'

fail,' in the Carthaginian manner, fubftituted. Our author's reform of the text is ingenious and highly probable.

The tables of Ptolemy, which are next examined, appear confufed, and at firft fight ftrongly militate againft M. Goffelin's fyftem. The names are greatly changed, and are extended far to the fouth of the limits affigned. The tables, however, are copied from Marinus of Tyre: the maps are thofe of the fame author; for, though Ptolemy has corrected many of his charts, thofe of the weftern coaft of Africa remain the fame, and their original date is nearly that of the æra of Polybius. In thefe charts, a degree of latitude is equal to feven hundred ftadia; the calculation is made from the weftern extremity of the ftrait, and the meafures are eftimated by ftraight lines. After having eftablifhed thefe points, M. Goffelin examines the tables; and, of the twenty-four firft pofitions, he accurately traces eighteen. Thefe lead to Cape Non; and the ftations, not afcertained, are fome trifling intermediate ones, and they are not fucceffive. Thefe, however, do not fill a third of the coaft apparently known according to thefe charts. What is furprifing (and we think it is clearly demonftrated in this part of the memoir), the fame rivers and promontories are repeated with little change in the names, and lefs in the order or the diftances. The third part it is plaufibly contended, is a copy of the fecond part.

'Two remarkable circumftances contribute to fupport our opinion. Firft, Ptolemy affures us, that, from the bottom of the "great gulf of the weft," the weftern Æthiopians occupy a vaft unknown tract, extended indefinitely fouthward and weftward, beyond the fifth degree of fouth latitude. If then the ancients had reached the gulf of Guinea, where could they have found countries farther weft than the fhores, whofe finuofities they had followed? How could they have faid, that the fouthern limits of Æthiopia were unknown to them, fince they muft have vifited thefe limits? How could they affert, that weftern Æthiopia was bounded on the fouth and weft by unknown countries, fince, in that direction, they muft have feen the Atlantic Ocean?—Secondly, It was the opinion of the fchool of Alexandria, that Africa could not be doubled by fea. Strabo and other geographers believed that the Atlantic united with the Indian ocean; but Hipparchus was perfuaded, that each fea was confined to a peculiar bafin; and, though Pofidonius attacked this opinion, Ptolemy, by adopting it, continued its influence through two centuries; fo that it was deemed impoffible to furround Africa.

'To continue this opinion fo long againft fuch authorities, the navigators, who frequented the weftern coafts of Africa, muft have been unable to prove that, after a certain extent of

coaſt, it verged to the eaſt: they muſt have been ſtopped by the ſouthern point of a cape, which they were unable to double; and ſeeing the coaſt towards this cape trend to the weſt, they muſt have ſuppoſed it impoſſible that they could in this way arrive to the eaſt of Africa. Theſe different circumſtances meet only on the north of Cape Bojador, in the gulf which receives the river Non. From the bottom of this gulf, the ſhore goes weſtward, more ſteadily, than in any other part of the coaſt. Thence to Cape Blanc, the coaſt trends rapidly ſouth and ſouth-weſt, and, from Cape Blanc to Cape Verd, to the ſouth. Had the ancients proceeded ſo far, their opinion of a weſtern coaſt would have been found untenable. Had they doubled Cape Verd, and proceeded to Sierra Leone, or any part of Guinea, the direction of the coaſt, eaſtward, would have deſtroyed the ſyſtems of Hipparchus and Ptolemy. Since theſe ſyſtems were deſtroyed only about the year 1432 by the ſucceſs of Gillianez, is it not natural to conclude, that no known navigator had, before his time, extended his reſearches beyond Cape Bojador?'

Theſe obſervations are juſt and ſtriking; and we may obſerve, in concluding this part of the argument, that, if the foundations of our author's ſyſtem, viz. the rate of ſailing, and the points from which Hanno's departure was taken, be well founded, the reſt muſt indiſputably follow. In our opinion they are well eſtabliſhed.

Proceeding to the chapter which treats of the 'traditions reſpecting the iſlands of the Atlantic,' adjacent to the coaſts juſt examined, we may remark, that, at the extremity of Hanno's expedition, he mentions the Gorillæ, and tells us, that he chiefly ſaw females, who fought with fury; that he killed three of them, and carried their ſkins, covered with hair, back to Carthage. Theſe female Gorillæ are ſuppoſed to be the Gorgons of antiquity; the iſland of the Gorillæ, the Gorgades, and the Gorgons, from the authority of Xenophon of Lampſacus, quoted by Pliny, are conſidered as the ſame. The ſuppoſed females were thoſe of the ouran-outang tribe; but they afforded a foundation for a Grecian fable; and the fabuliſts of Greece, with their uſual facility of adopting perſons and changing ſituations, have transferred the Gorgons to the Mediterranean, where they were defeated by Perſeus, a hero derived from India. The Gorgons are mentioned by Heſiod; and, though we ſhould not think it *neceſſary* to believe, that the Gorillæ were Heſiod's Gorgons, perhaps it may be ſafely admitted. This coincidence leads M. Goſſelin to examine the æra of Hanno's periplus; and, after ſome diſcuſſion, he conſiders Carthage as having been founded about 1235 years before the Chriſtian æra, and the age of Heſiod as being

about 950 before the ſame epoch. Carthage had therefore flouriſhed nearly three centuries before the time of Heſiod; and this voyage might have eaſily occurred, and its reſult been known. We were inclined to place the æra of the voyage later; and it would be no difficult matter to raiſe objections to either date, and, above all, to the probability of any publication of the incidents of the voyage by a nation ſo jealous of commercial rivalry as the Phœnicians. But we have not room for ſuch diſcuſſions; nor are we ſatisfied that our poſitions would be better eſtabliſhed than thoſe of M. Goſſelin. Even the jealouſy of the Carthaginians may have allowed the ſtory of the Gorgons to tranſpire, while their ſituation was concealed.

The iſlands next noticed are the Heſperides or Fortunate Iſlands. What we once had occaſion to remark of Thule, applies to the Heſperides: it was on the north, at the extreme limits of the geographical knowledge of the ancients, and was removed continually as theſe were extended, till it migrated to Iceland or Spitzbergen—to 'Nova Zembla or the Lord knows where.' In the ſame way, the Fortunate Iſlands were, in our author's opinion, ſome fertile ſpots in the great deſert Oaſis, thence removed to a ſimilarly favoured diſtrict on the ſouth of the greater Syrtis, then farther to the weſt, on the banks of the Lixus, till they terminated in real iſlands of the Atlantic. M. Goſſelin thinks that the fable of Atlas and Heſperus was purely geographical, and that the ſeven daughters of Atlas were the ſeven Fortunate Iſlands, formed by the higher pics of this mountain, extending into the ſea, and riſing above its ſurface.

The Atlantis of Plato was probably one of theſe projecting heights of the Atlantic chain, the diſcovery of which, reaching Plato, gave occaſion to his fable, and afforded a ſcene for his political ſpeculations. He was careful, however, to immerge it in the ſea, leſt any one might ſeek for it without ſucceſs. He ſeems to have repented of the vaſt extent which he firſt aſſigned to it; for, in the Critias, he reduces it to a ſquare, each ſide of which did not exceed 3000 ſtadia. Ariſtotle ſpeaks of the diſcovery of a fertile iſland in the Atlantic by the Carthaginians, which was probably the Atlantis, ſince no other was known in Greece.

Sertorius, according to Pliny, diſcovered another iſland of this groupe; and was ſo captivated by its fertility, as to determine on retiring to it. Twenty years afterwards, Statius Seboſus undertook the publication of the diſcoveries of Sertorius and ſome of his followers; but, in his attempt to combine the different itineraries, he committed many miſtakes, which, for 1400 years, contributed to confuſe the geography of the weſtern coaſts of Africa. Theſe M. Goſſelin attempts

to rectify with various success. On the whole, as we now know that no islands exist in the spots described by Sebostus, and that his topographical descriptions are realised by the appearances, &c. of the Canary Islands, we may believe our author's explanation to be just.

Juba of Mauritania was the next adventurer in these seas. This prince was fond of geographical inquiries, and, from his situation, well placed for farther discoveries in the Atlantic. He examined the Fortunate Islands, and another groupe to the east, called Purpurariæ from the murex fishery established there. The Purpurariæ are the most eastern of the Canary islands; the two principal of which are Lancerote and Fortaventure. The farthest island he calls Ombrios, the Pluvialia of Sebostus, the modern Ferro. Junonia and Capraria answer to Palma and Gomera. Teneriffe must be the Nivaria, from its snowy mountain; and Canaria, in spite of errors and accidents, has preserved its name and given it to the whole groupe. The islands placed on the charts of Ptolemy are next examined, and reduced to the same collection; and the memoir is concluded by a table of corresponding names, in ancient and modern authors.

We have dwelt on this work, with a view of drawing the attention of enlightened geographers to M. Gosselin's system. It may, at first sight, appear bold and chimerical; but, when fully examined, it will be appreciated with greater justice. If it should be established, it will greatly influence many parts of ancient history, and many circumstances respecting ancient manners; and, even if it should be found, on the whole, untenable, it will awaken the minds of the learned from the torpor which they seem to have contracted, and diminish that blind admiration of the acquisitions of remote ages, which has long been fondly cherished.

(*To be continued.*)

Mémoires Historiques de Stéphanie-Louise de Bourbon-Conti, écrits par Elle-même. Paris. 1798.

Historical Memoirs of Stephanie-Louise de Bourbon-Conti, written by Herself. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. Sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

AT any other period than the present, the circumstances related in these volumes would have fixed the attention of the public. But the states of Europe have been shaken to their foundation by the effects of a mighty and tremendous revolution; and, amidst the wreck of kingdoms, the wrongs of an individual have been unnoticed, and her cries unheard. Dreadful has been the destiny of the Bourbons; but it is indeed true,

that 'the most unfortunate individual of that unfortunate race is not yet in the grave.' These volumes will declare to the world the injuries sustained by the female to whom we allude; and surely they must excite the indignation and compassion of the reader: but the sufferer, we fear, has little else to expect; her consolation must be, that there is a better world, and *there* must her hope be placed.

The writer of these memoirs was born in 1762. She was the illegitimate child of the late prince of Conti, by a duchess who possessed great beauty, ample riches, and an illustrious name. That name is concealed; but we are told that she was known at court by the appellation of *la belle duchesse*. These circumstances may point out, to those who can remember the French court at that period, a woman whose conduct renders credible the history of Savage's supposed mother. By permission of Louis XV. the child was called countess of Mont-Cair-Zain—an anagram of the names of her parents. It was the intention of the prince of Conti to procure an act of legitimation for this daughter, of whom he was extremely fond; and the king promised to grant it. But the mother warmly opposed this intention, unwilling that the splendid fortunes of the child should excite curiosity, and lead to the discovery of a secret which she had so much interest to conceal. The prince appeared to yield, lest she should utterly cast off her child. The infant was entrusted to the care of a woman who called herself Delorme, who was still young, and had talents for intrigue. This woman affected to be fond of the child before the prince; and, on that account, she frequently experienced his generosity.

The prince obtained permission that his daughter might wear the *cordon bleu*; a favour which, in the preceding reign, had been granted to his mother. A medallion, having the portrait of the prince on one side and that of the duchess on the other, was affixed to the *cordon*. It seems strange that the duchess should have permitted this, particularly as the prince insisted that the child should never be without this mark of distinction.

The affection of the prince for this child knew no bounds; and she of course was delighted when she saw her father. 'He loved (she says) to excite in me the most agreeable surprise by visiting me unexpectedly. If I was in an undress, his impatience would not suffer him to wait while my attendants dressed me: he would take me in his arms and bear me to his carriage, which always stood at some distance from the *hôtel*. I leave you to conceive the surprise of the neighbourhood at this fondness. He even carried it so far as to get out of his carriage to purchase for me whatever excited my desire or even attracted my attention. At our return, he

earnestly desired my nurse never, for a moment, to lose sight of me—recommended an indulgence to the whims of her charge, and forbade all contradiction which might sour my character. His will was punctually followed; and my happiness seemed complete. My mother concurred in augmenting it by the most tender cares. A rivalry in promoting it existed between her and my father: her bounty equaled that of the most liberal of princes. A numerous household, attached to my service, and happy in my prosperity, received from my parents frequent marks of kindness; and they particularly showered their favours upon my nurse: the attachment which she had the address to display towards me had gained, or rather, alas! usurped, the confidence of my father. He gave her the title of tutoress of his daughter; this was a kind of superintendance over the assistants in my education. As he was the friend of the fine arts, he could easily draw around him the most celebrated masters of every kind, who would emulously exert themselves in procuring for me the best ornament of childhood, of youth, indeed of every age—agreeable talents and useful knowledge. Jean-Jacques then filled the universe with the celebrity of his name and the *éclat* of his glory: the immortal instructor of the human race, the preceptor of Emilius, he whose enchanting style makes Sophia an object of adoration, was invited by my father to direct the growing reason of his daughter. The prince neglected nothing to obtain from the philosopher this extraordinary favour. It was more easy to determine the friend of mankind to render a service than to receive a benefit; yet it required nothing less than the gratitude and friendship which he bore my father to engage him to charge himself with these truly paternal cares.

'O my master, never shall I forget thy wise lessons! thou couldest not foresee the dreadful evils which were to descend upon thy unfortunate pupil: thou hadst sown in my young heart the seeds of that sweet philanthropy which renders happy all around it; and I seemed to have been born for the happiness of others. Ah! if I have not been able to put in practice the sublime morality which thy feeling soul inculcated—celestial spirit! if I cannot present myself before thee surrounded with grateful hearts whose happiness was my work, if I cannot offer to thee the homage of happy beings which I promised to offer, if my tears and those of my friends are the only tribute which I can bring to thy memory, O Jean-Jacques, do not accuse thy pupil! do not regret the precious time employed in forming her mind! I should have been worthy of thee in prosperity; I should have realised the dreams of thy sensibility, of thy benevolent philosophy. If heaven had not tried me by the extremes of adversity, I should have been

indebted to thee for finding my own happineſs in the welfare of my fellow-creatures; but this I owe to thee, that I poſſeſs that ſtrong and intrepid ſpirit, which, riſing above misfortune, has ſupported itſelf to this day with courage, and without arraigning providence for thoſe evils which, by their number and nature, would have terrified the moſt ſtoical ſoul. Hadſt thou taught me the ſame firmneſs for misfortunes not my own, this paper would not ſo often have been moiſtened with my tears!'

An education directed by Rouſſeau demands attention; and it is pleaſant to linger on this part of his pupil's life; for the remainder can only excite the painful ſentiments of fruitleſs indignation and unavailing pity. 'He not only employed all his care (ſays our authoreſs) to develope the moral and intellectual qualities of his pupil—he not only wiſhed to form my underſtanding and my heart, but particularly employed himſelf, during the early years of my life, in creating for me a robuſt temperament, in unfolding my phyſical ſtrength, in accuſtoming me to endure without complaint the inclemency of the weather, fatigue, thirſt and hunger, to ſleep upon the ground, to eat every thing without diſlike, and to ſuffer from no privations. He alone directed whatever regarded my phyſical and moral education. He never permitted my attendants to ſerve me with meat: it was only by a kind of condeſcenſion that he allowed me to make uſe of its juices. He was never perfectly ſatisfied but when he ſaw me take cold milk for ſoup, vegetables in their ſeaſon, and ripe fruits. He had preſcribed ſmall muffins, and expreſsly forbidden that I ſhould have any bread except the coarſeſt and moſt baked. But, as he was not preſent at all my meals, my governeſs, who loved the little cakes of *la rue Nôtre-Dame des Victoires*, had ſecretly formed me to her taſte, and aſſiſted me in deceiving the good Jean-Jacques. I was more docile with regard to wine, of which I was never very fond. He ordered that it ſhould be given to me in a very ſmall quantity, once or twice a week at moſt; and perhaps I ſhould not have made the leaſt uſe of it, if it had not been in ſome degree forbidden. Above all, he required that my food ſhould be frequently varied, to prevent me from acquiring a habit of preferring one kind, and contracting a diſlike for another.

'Having fallen into the moſt dreadful miſery by a chain of unprecedented events, I have had occaſion to appreciate the importance of theſe precautions, ſo minute and trifling in appearance, that my governeſs would ſmile with contempt when they were mentioned. After my indiſpoſitions and various ſufferings, I ſhould not have exiſted at preſent, if my body had not been previouſly accuſtomed to content itſelf with the moſt

ſimple food. Every day that paſſes, I ſay to myſelf, it is to the provident care of Jean-Jacques that I am indebted for ſeeing it; this day is another benefit conferred on me by my illuſtrious tutor.'

To excite emulation, a boy of the ſame age was choſen for the companion of her ſports and ſtudies. This aſſociate, from his dreſs, was known by the appellation of the Huſſar of the little counteſs of Mont-Cair-Zain. They had the ſame inſtructors in logic, mathematics, geography, muſic, drawing, riding and military exerciſes; for the little counteſs was made a ſoldier, and her father formed a regiment of children in the Conti uniform, to manœuvre with her and the huſſar on field-days. The prince made the young volunteers obſerve the moſt rigid diſcipline. At night they ſlept upon mats placed on the ground: they made their own fires in camp, and prepared their own food: but, in the place where they exerciſed, there ſtood a houſe, the larder of which was more inviting than the camp kitchen; and the ſoldiers were frequently detected marauding. The huſſar and the counteſs were ſo expert as to lead on their leſs adroit companions, and eſcape detection when their followers were apprehended.

To the pupil of Rouſſeau, the Greek, Latin, and Italian languages were taught: ſhe adds, that ſhe was even inſtructed to diſtinguiſh the Chineſe characters; an aſſertion which we ſhould diſbelieve if it did not appear too abſurd to be hazarded were it falſe. Mathematics alſo formed a part of her education. Rouſſeau was admirably patient in demonſtrating the problems; but the little counteſs, in the midſt of his demonſtration, was thinking of her amuſements. He would ſmile and ſay, 'We will begin this leſſon again ſome other time, when you may be leſs abſent.' She was then far from thinking that this ſcience would one day be a reſource which ſhould preſerve her from periſhing with want.

But it was in converſation that Rouſſeau gave his pupil the moſt uſeful and impreſſive leſſons; not ſo much by ſpeaking to her of her faults, as by pointing out the inconvenience and abſurdity of them in ſome example which ſhe had before her eyes, or which he cited as by chance. She ſtood greatly in awe of the little ſtories frequently related by him, in which the counteſs of Mont-Cair-Zain, under another name, always appeared as the principal character. Madame Delorme complained one evening to the prince, that his daughter would have her will in every thing: 'It is in the blood,' replied the prince ſmiling:—'Say in the ſex,' rejoined Jean-Jacques with that good humour which gave greater point to his repartees. The governeſs never forgave him.

The counteſs once aſked Rouſſeau whether he had any child-

ren: he burst into tears, and immediately left the room. In praising the free manners of the dauphiness (Marie Antoinette), then 'glittering like the morning star,' the prince particularly extolled her disposition to brave the prejudices and tyranny of etiquette, and to break those golden chains which render the first princes in the world more miserable slaves than the lowest of their subjects. 'These golden chains,' replied Rousseau, 'will no sooner be broken, than all those persons whom they no longer bind to the court, will come to Paris to cabal and conspire, perhaps against the monarch and the monarchy.'

The father, as well as the daughter, sometimes received excellent lessons from Rousseau. The prince told him, that, when Louis XV. had pressed him to renounce his pretensions to the town of Neufchâtel, conformably to the last treaties, he had replied, 'Sire, in my eyes sovereignty is so fine a thing, that, if I were sovereign of my bed, I would never leave it.' Jean-Jacques answered, 'You would not be the first slave who believed himself a sovereign.'

When the countess was eleven years old, her father procured an act of legitimation from the king; and the day was fixed for her appearance at court. This he communicated to her, strictly enjoining her to keep it secret. Madame Delorme procured from her a disclosure of the secret; and, before the appointed day, she was inveigled from home and carried into Franche-Comté, the country of her perfidious governess. An official account of the death and burial of his child was transmitted to the prince. The certificate was signed by the curé of the parish, in presence of the brother-in-law of madame Delorme, and the chaplain of the duchess. In 1792, when Stephanie-Louise asserted her birth and claims, the register of the church was examined; and it did not appear that such interment had been recorded in it.

The mother of this unfortunate child was evidently the first agent in this plot, as the note which invited Stephanie from home was written by her. There is strong reason to suspect the present prince of Conti, then the count de la Marche, of having promoted it. He had offended his father; and the legitimation of this child was of course dreaded by him. She had often interceded for her brother: Rousseau had taught her so to act, and her heart easily received the lesson. This suspicion is not avowed by the writer; but it subsists on firm grounds.

The pretexts alleged to Stephanie for her removal were, that she had offended her father by divulging the secret which he had entrusted to her, and that he himself was disgraced and exiled. Madame Delorme made use of all her art to preserve the confidence of her ill-fated pupil, and persuade her to

enter a convent, where, ſhe ſaid, ſhe had orders to place her as her daughter. They were lodged in the houſe of the ſieur B. whom madame Delorme called her relative. The counteſs ſtrongly objecting to the propoſals of her governeſs, the latter aſked, if ſhe would rather marry monſieur B. 'There is no alternative,' ſhe added: 'you muſt either bear his name or mine; you muſt either be his wife or my daughter, that you may find a retreat in his houſe or in a convent. Such are the preciſe orders that I have received from the court and from your parents; and I ſhall take care to prevent you from ruining yourſelf by a refuſal of ſubmiſſion.' Stephanie replied, 'Since I have only the choice of gaolers, I prefer any grate in France to the priſon of your friend B. I will not heſitate a moment to follow you to any convent to which you chuſe to conduct me. You may even call me by your name: my averſion for that man is ſo ſtrong, that I can endure any thing except his preſence: but do not expect that I will ever ſign any other name than my own.'

Madame Delorme endeavoured to prevail on the counteſs to keep her hiſtory ſecret in the convent; and ſtrict orders were given that ſhe ſhould be ſuffered to write only to the ſieur B. But ſhe contracted a friendſhip with a perſon who had ſufficient penetration to be ſuſpicious of madame Delorme; and ſhe declared to this friend, that ſhe would not quit the convent before ſhe ſhould receive a written order from her father. It might have been fortunate for her if ſhe had perſiſted in this reſolution; for her young friends would probably, by ſome means, have communicated her ſituation to the prince: but ſhe was inveigled away by a report that madame Delorme was dying, and forcibly married to the ſieur B. She was not yet twelve years of age, and this man, deteſtable both in mind and body, was advanced in years. A narration of more atrocious wickedneſs we ſcarcely ever peruſed;—and the mother of Stephanie was the inſtigator! She it was who made it the intereſt of the execrable Delorme to ruin her pupil. She it was who gave the dowry that induced this man to force her child into a marriage.

The little huſſar had been conveyed into Franche-Comté with the counteſs. He had been threatened unleſs he ſhould keep ſilence; but ſome intimation of the truth had fallen from him; and he was never heard of afterwards. From what he had ſaid, and other ſuſpicious circumſtances, ſuch was the opinion of the country, that the conſpirators could not venture upon the marriage there. Though Stephanie was under twelve, the pretended certificate of baptiſm produced at her marriage ſtated her to be eighteen years of age. As no prieſt could eaſily be duped by this pretence, it was neceſſary to find one who

would become an accomplice. Wickedneſs is always moſt readily perpetrated in great cities; and Stephanie was carried to Paris. M. Richard, the brother-in-law of madame Delorme, conſented to act as guardian to the young lady. 'The bans,' ſhe ſays, 'were publiſhed in the pariſh of this guardian, who had been juſt appointed for the ceremony. This was not enough: it was neceſſary to conduct me to the altar. All the arts of ſeduction were too weak to perſuade me to go. They were baffled by an invincible repugnance. I heard madame Delorme without power to reply; her arguments, without perſuading, ſtaggered and confuſed me. Sometimes I appeared fluctuating and doubtful; but the approach of the fatal moment, and the horror of joining my hand to that which was deſtined for me, deſtroyed all ſophiſms, and effaced all the impreſſions of terror and of hope with which I had been for a moment affected. Not being able to ſubdue my heart, my adverſaries ſtupefied my reaſon by liquors, of which the effect was the more ſpeedy as I had never uſed them. The ſucceſs was too complete: a burning fever manifeſted itſelf; but it was not my life, it was my marriage that was of conſequence to the conſpirators. Notwithſtanding my reſiſtance, my tears, a fever that conſumed me, and ſuffocating vomitings, they dragged me in this ſtate to the altar. I know not what paſſed there: I only recollect, that, at the moment of our appearing there, I ſaid to the ſieur B. "Never, never, will I be your wife!" This mockery was acted in the church where Stephanie was ſaid to have been buried; and the prieſt who married her was the man who had forged the certificate of her interment.

Here, however, the crime ceaſed. B. had made her his priſoner; but he durſt not offer her any perſonal violence. Rouſſeau had given a manly courage to his pupil; and the fourteen years which ſhe paſſed under the tyranny of that villain daily increaſed her contempt and abhorrence of him. Madame Delorme at laſt repented; but it was a death-bed repentance, and produced no good effect. After fourteen years of wretchedneſs and vain exertions to deliver herſelf, Stephanie compelled her huſband to ſuffer her to depart; and ſhe immediately retired to a convent, the abbeſs of which was connected with B. She there underwent, for two years, thoſe ſeverities for which the convents afforded too much opportunity. At length, by refuſing all food, ſhe intimidated the abbeſs, and obtained her releaſe. Long before this time, Louis XV. had died; and her father's life had been ſhortened by the ſuppoſed death of his favourite child. She applied to her brother, who had ſucceeded the defunct prince. The legal proofs which ſhe adduced to identify herſelf, could not be controverted; but this man treated her with a barbarous in-

difference which ought for ever to be remembered to his infamy. She did not demand to be reinstated in her former rank; she requested only a maintenance. An establishment was on the point of being formed for mademoiselle on her marriage with the duke of Angoulême: 'There will be situations in this household,' so she wrote to her brother, 'which, without derogating from my birth, would not divulge the mystery; one of these places would not be refused to the demand of your highness.' This was the reply: 'Madame, I have received the letter with which you honoured me, and am very sorry that it is not in my power to comply with your request. Be not the less persuaded, I pray you, of the sincerity of all the sentiments with which I have the honour to be, Madame, your very humble and obedient servant, L. F. J. De Bourbon.'

Such was the treatment which Stephanie received from her brother. The duke and duchess of Orleans acknowledged and neglected her; but in monsieur, (the prince who is now styled Louis XVIII.) and in the excellent madame Elizabeth, she found protectors and friends. From the former she received pecuniary presents to enable her to reclaim her paternal rights. A suit was commenced; and the mode by which the prince of Conti thought proper to evade it was by pleading that Stephanie could carry on no suit unauthorised by her husband. She then endeavoured to procure a legal dissolution of the marriage; but the influence of her brother, and perhaps also the prejudices of the time (for it was near the close of 1791) prevailed; and she was declared to have been legally married. She applied to the king on this occasion: his conduct was just and noble; he acknowledged her, and gratified her with a pension. The French monarchy was soon after overthrown; and this unfortunate woman was involved in the ruin of the house of Bourbon.

She survived the dangers of the revolution; but her enemies ceased not to persecute her. Louis XVI. had recommended to her the care of his children; and she would therefore have shared the destiny of Marie-Therèse: but an abandoned woman was suborned to assume her name; and her conduct, being reported to the princess as that of the real Stephanie, deprived her of this last friend. The woman confessed that she had been well paid for her conduct; but the justification of the injured person was not permitted to reach the princess.

The spirit of Stephanie was still unbroken. She advanced a claim to a stipend, or to some part of her father's property. But, when the commotion of Fructidor took place, her friends were among the weaker party; and, though a small pension

had been ſettled on her, ſhe could not obtain the regular payment of it.

'I terminate theſe memoirs (ſhe ſays) in the year 1798, the firſt day of ſpring, to uſe the common language; for there is no ſpring to the unhappy. I conclude them in coming from an audience with the miniſter Letourneur, not in a tranſport of extraordinary miſanthropy, but in the habitual diſpoſition of an oppreſſed ſpirit which has ſcarcely ever yet, in what concerns it perſonally, ſeen any thing but the triumph of wickedneſs, and the abuſe of power oppreſſing weakneſs Will a better futurity, and an authority enlightened by the manifeſtation of the moſt inconteſtable and melancholy truths, command an addition to theſe memoirs, or muſt they be the laſt cries of miſery, the laſt accents of deſpair? Powerful God, if ſuch be thy will, if this be my teſtament of death, if the moment for ſtriking the fatal blow be come, the victim is ready and reſigned! let her not be tortured by long agonies!'

Authentic teſtimonials confirm the truth of this narration; and it well deſerves the attention of the public.

Annales de Chymie, Vols. XV. XVI. XVII. XVIII.

Annals of Chemiſtry. (Continued from Vol. XXIV. New Arrangement, p. 505.)

THE firſt article of the fifteenth volume relates to the 'choice of clays and their uſe in potteries, either in the conſtruction of furnaces or of crucibles,' by M. Haſſenfratz. The chief reſult of the inquiry is, that only thoſe clays which contain alumine and flint are uſeful for theſe purpoſes; that, for furnaces, the flint muſt be in a very large proportion, and, for crucibles, the alumine; that, for the latter, the alumine muſt be previouſly calcined and powdered, or the broken pots, minutely pounded, ſubſtituted for it. If the calcined alumine be employed, the heat muſt be as great as any to which the crucibles will ever be ſubjected. The principle on which theſe directions depend is, that the furnaces are ſubject only to the action of heat, while crucibles are affected by the heat externally, and by that of various fluxes internally: a large proportion of ſilex would therefore be injurious to the latter.

From M. Pelletier's obſervations on the carbonate of potaſh, and the nature of this neutral, it appears that, in every ſaturation of the alkali by the carbonic acid, ſome ſiliceous earth is always depoſited; that the neutral cryſtalliſes in rhomboidal priſms, and contains, when perfectly neutraliſed, 43 parts of carbonic acid, 17 of water, and 48 of pure alkali; and

that, in ſolution, the neutral produces cold, and, with the ſlighteſt heat, ſome of the acid eſcapes; but no degree of heat, alone, will ſeparate the whole.

Dr. Blagden's report of the beſt methods of aſcertaining the ſtrength of ſpirituous liquors, is tranſlated from the Philoſophical Tranſactions. M. Andrada's memoir on the diamonds of Braſil, long ſince noticed in our foreign literary intelligence, is the next article.

Among the extracts from Crell's Annals, we find an analyſis of an excellent ſyſtem of mineralogy, by M. Suckow, and of Kœſtner's tranſlation of Hellot's work on dyeing, with the notes of M. Hoffmann; an account of a ſtone reſembling the German pechſtein, which becomes tranſparent by fire, and is therefore called by M. Born pyrophanous; an intimation of the mode employed by the Mongol Tartars to collect ſugar from milk (which conſiſts in freezing it, when the ſugar effloreſces, in a white powder, on the top); and a deſcription of M. Gadolin's method of ſeparating the fatty matter from crude nitre, by means of charcoal, inſtead of alum. M. Schrœder, of Berlin, having melted three parts of acidulated tartrite of pot-aſh (cream of tartar) with one of borax, found it, in the dark, of a beautiful ſea-green colour. This hue ſlowly diſappeared, but was reſtored by expoſing the mixture to the ſun. M. Pickel found that a thermometer, moiſtened with linſeed oil, oil of cloves, oil of canella, Deppel's animal oil, and phoſphorus diſſolved in oil of canella, when plunged in oxygenated muriatic gas, raiſed the mercury conſiderably. The balſam of Peru, the ſulphures and alkalis, raiſed it only two or three degrees; muriat of antimony and nitrat of ſilver, one degree only; camphor, lime-water, alcohol, vinegar, acids, and metallic ſolutions, did not affect it. The other obſervations, from this collection, are either trifling or generally known. The accounts of different chemical works, publiſhed in Germany, are not very important, if we except an article relative to the working of mines.

An excellent diſſertation on common ink for writing, by M. Ribaucourt, deſerves to be tranſlated; but we can only give a ſketch of it. According to his experiments, the gall contains an earthy and a neutral ſalt, each with the peculiar gallic acid. When the ſulphate of iron is joined to it, a double decompoſition takes place; and the ſelenite is precipitated of a black colour, which it takes from the iron, in a groſs form. This precipitate is copiouſly depoſited on felt, but will not penetrate the fibres of wool or ſilk: a ſecond precipitate contains the true neutral with the alkali, and a ſmall proportion of ſelenite, which will impregnate wool and ſilk; but the fine tranſparent black colour proceeds from the oxyd of iron, which is partly in the ſtate of Pruſſian blue. Six ounces of the

gallic earth abforb fix ounces of fulphuric acid. In the compofition of ink, no ingredient will properly fupply the place of the gall-nut. Logwood blackens the precipitate, without increafing its quantity: we imagine that it augments the proportion of Pruffian blue. Blue vitriol alfo increafes the black colour; and candied fugar gives fome degree of fluidity to the ink, which is thickened by too great a proportion of gum. No ingredient will form a good fubftitute for the fulphat of iron.

The memoir on the different methods propofed for determining the quality of crude nitre—on the wafte which arifes from boiling the folution, in confequence of the volatilifation of the falt—and on the changes requifite in the procefs to prevent the different inconveniences—is elaborate and ufeful, but cannot well be abridged. It is continued in the fixteenth volume.

Some valuable remarks by M. Weftring, on the dyeing qualities of many of the Swedifh lichens, are here given from the memoirs of the academy of Stockholm. Thirty-one are particularly noticed; and their management, when they are employed either on wool or on filk, is diftinctly defcribed. The colours of thefe lichens are extracted by a tenth part of unflacked lime, and $\frac{1}{20}$ of crude fal ammoniac: they are, in general, fugitive.

The refult of fome experiments on agriculture, and reflections on their relation to political œconomy, by the late unfortunate Lavoifier, are added; but they are not interefting to the Englifh agriculturift.

M. Piffi's obfervations on muriat of barytes, and on the falt which lines the internal furface of the walls of the baths of Vichi, are not fufficiently important or accurate to detain us. The volume concludes with a letter from Van Mons to Fourcroy, containing fome chemical intelligence.

In the earlier part of the fixteenth volume is an article which relates to calculi, by M. Fourcroy. The effay is interefting, as it contains whatever was known on the fubject before the period of its publication; but the whole is not new, fince we have had occafion to follow Dr. Pearfon's fcientific refearches*. M. Fourcroy notices the biliary, hepatic, and inteftinal calculi. What relates to the inteftinal calculus of a horfe is remarkable. The ftone analyfed confifted of two parts of the phofphat of magnefia, one part of the phofphat of ammoniac, and one part of water, with fome flight traces of vegetable and animal matter. The mufcular, pancreatic, and pineal calculi, our author has never analyfed. Little is known of the pulmonary calculi, but they are fuppofed by M. Ræring to be

* See our XXIVth Vol. New Arr. p. 54.

the ſame with the tophaceous, ſince he found them in an old arthritic. The renal calculus reſembles that of the bladder. The renal calculus of a horſe contained, in a large proportion, carbonate and phoſphate of lime: ſome renal calculi of a cat contained $\frac{3}{4}$ of carbonate of lime, and $\frac{1}{4}$ of phoſphate of lime. Nothing is added to our knowledge of the ſalivary calculi, or of thoſe of the ſtomach; and the writer is not aware, that the vegetable concretions are known to be ſometimes flint, particularly thoſe in the cavities of the Indian bamboo. Some we may perhaps conſider as calcareous: ſome appear to be of the nature of the wood; thoſe of pears ſeem, from the preſent experiments. to be a woody matter confuſedly cryſtalliſed. The lithic acid, which ſeems to be peculiar to the human urine, has not been ſufficiently examined; nor have the uterine calculi been attentively obſerved.

G. Berthollet's letter to L. Berthollet on his experiments relative to aſtringents, and his analyſis of quinquina, differing in ſome reſpects from that of Fourcroy, are not intereſting. M. Gadolin's method of lixiviating and purifying crude ſalt-petre, by means of charcoal duſt, cannot conveniently be abridged. He finds the charcoal powder uſeful for this purpoſe, and, in general, confirms M. Lowitz' experiments.

The next article, though trifling, made a deeper impreſſion upon us from adventitious circumſtances. M. Lamanon, whoſe fate we have lately lamented, communicated (before his departure with la Pérouſe the navigator) ſome experiments to the academy of ſciences, in which he endeavoured to prove, that quartz was really combuſtible, ſince the fragments of two pieces of flint, one of which he ſtruck againſt the other, fell on white paper, covered with a fuliginous matter, and imprinted a mark on it. This idea he followed with eagerneſs, and applied it to the theory of the earth, in ſupport of Buffon's ſyſtem. It did not appear, indeed, that this ſooty matter was from the iron accidentally mixed with the quartz, but it ſeemed to be extraneous, and to conſiſt of the floating bodies in the atmoſphere burned during the fall of the heated flint.

Extracts from the eighth and ninth numbers of Crell's Annals for 1791, are included in this volume; but few of the articles are intereſting: we will briefly notice thoſe which are moſt ſo. M. Hacquet has examined, with ſome care, the Carpathian mountains. They are covered on the tops with Iceland moſs; and the ſubſtance is a grit, in which the flinty particles are agglutinated by argil, with a ſlight mixture of iron. Theſe mountains, like all thoſe in which grit predominates, are poor in minerals, but contain a large proportion of muriat of pot-aſh, and a variety of mineral waters, ſome

of which, particularly the hepatic waters, are very salutary. The acidulous waters of Donna-Sara are said to be injurious. Their odour is pleasant, but they contain a large proportion of azotic gas; their chief salts are the carbonate of soda, and that of lime. We have reason to believe, however, that the analysis was too hasty to be precise.

It is not generally known, that the yellow amber of Kœnigsberg has been lately discovered by digging, though the supply was usually procured on the shores, where it had been thrown by storms. It is raised 200 feet from the sea, where many shafts are sunk, one of which is near 100 feet in depth. The amber does not run in veins, but is found in nodules, in a matrix of charcoal, below which there are strata of sand. In the charcoal there are sometimes little threads of amber. This seems to show that the origin was volcanic, and that the amber was accumulated by sublimation.

M. Wieglib has glanced with his usual rapidity at the invention of gunpowder. He finds, even in his own village, incontestable proofs of its having been used in a military way in 1378; and it was not then considered as a novelty. He thinks, that it may have been invented about the end of the thirteenth century. It was certainly known for some time before it was employed in fire-arms. Perhaps no certain account of its use occurs before 1346 or 1354.

The 'report of the attempts which have been made at Paris, for producing an uniformity of measures and weights,' was early noticed in this journal.—From M. Fourcroy's analysis of the brain of men and other animals, this organ appears to be of a peculiar nature, in a chemical view. It differs from all the animal solids, and particularly from spermaceti. It also differs from the albumen of the blood, though it is more nearly allied to it than any other animal fluid.

The first article of the seventeenth volume comprehends the result of a laboured examination, by M. Deyeux, of the gall-nut, the gallic acid, and the precipitate which it produces with iron. The gall-nut, being equally soluble in water and spirit, cannot be distinguished, as usual, into gummy and resinous parts. Its acid is the carbonic, with a large proportion of carbone, which discriminates it from the ordinary acid of carbone. From the other vegetable acids it is distinguished by the absence of hydrogen. Either by an augmentation of the oxygen, or by a diminution of the carbone, it is brought to the state of carbonic acid.

M. Deyeux has also examined the precipitate, which the gallic acid forms with sulphate of iron. In this there is a portion of a blue colour, apparently the same with M. Ribaucourt's second precipitate. It is a gallate of iron, or more probably a triple salt, containing iron with the gallate of pot-

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ash. Alcohol separates the acid, and destroys the colour; but, in this salt, the acid is certainly in excess, since an alkali produces an effervescence. After repeated washings, the black precipitate appears to be a true oxyd of iron, with carbone, to which its colour may be attributed. On the whole, this essay is too verbose, and not sufficiently precise: we prefer that of M. Ribaucourt to it.

M. Beaumé's memoir on the method of refining crude saltpetre, is interesting only to the extensive manufacturer, to whom an analysis would be of little importance. M. Gadolin's 'reflections on the effects of heat on the chemical attractions of bodies,' follow. His general design is to show, that as heat is a peculiar fluid, differently attracted by the component parts of bodies, its effects cannot be uniform, and that the changes, which it produces on different substances, must be as various as their nature.

The process for destroying the peculiar taste of melasses, and rendering them proper, in many instances, to be substituted for sugar, may be worth transcribing, though we have reason to think that the syrup will not be pleasing to a delicate palate. 'Mix twenty-four pounds of melasses with an equal quantity of water, and six pounds of pure charcoal powdered. After gentle boiling for half an hour, the liquor must be strained, and the fluid suffered to evaporate to its former consistence.' The result will be twenty-four pounds of syrup.

M. Hauy's memoir on the double refraction of various fossils requires the assistance of the diagrams, to render it intelligible. These minerals are numerous; for the property of double refraction is found in the calcareous carbonate, sulphate of barytes, calcareous sulphate, the Saxon or Brasilian topaz, garnet, rock crystal, chrysolithe, Peruvian emerald, tourmalin, green schorl, &c.

M. Beaumé's memoir, on the method of bleaching silks without waste, so as to make them resemble the Nankin silk, is curious. The worm is destroyed by the affusion of alcohol on the pods, instead of heat, which renders the silk too compact, and makes it difficult to unravel. The spotted cocons must then be separated, as well as those which are naturally of a brilliant white, and which of course do not require any operation. It must be unraveled in the usual way, from the purest water; then washed with, and afterwards immersed in, alcohol, to forty-eight pounds of which, twelve ounces of marine acid, freed from all impregnation of the nitrous, have been added. By frequent immersions in this fluid, the silk becomes colourless; the alcohol is washed out by pouring pure water on the silk, and the acid by the affusion of an alkali. This is probably the mode in which the Nankin silk is bleached, as

ſome remains of an alkaline ſolution may be diſcovered in it. Such is the outline of our author's ſcheme. Methods of recovering the ſpirit of wine are added, as well as the preparation of vitriolic acid, proper for procuring the acid of ſea-ſalt without any impregnation of the nitrous. From the obſervations on the Nankin ſilk, it ſeems that the acid of the Chineſe manufacturers is by no means pure, or free from nitrous impregnations.

As the liquor for deſtroying caterpillars, ants, and other inſects which infeſt gardens, may be uſeful, we will communicate the mode of preparing it. Take a pound and $\frac{3}{4}$ of the beſt black ſoap, as much flour of ſulphur, two pounds of muſhrooms which grow on rotten wood, and thirty quarts of water. Bruiſe the muſhrooms, and, with one half of the water, diſſolve the ſoap; then add the muſhrooms. To the other half, the ſulphur incloſed in a bag muſt be added, and ſunk by means of a weight to the bottom. The water muſt boil twenty minutes; during which time you muſt frequently ſtir it, and preſs the bag which contains the ſulphur. The two parts muſt be mixed while hot, and the fluid kept till it becomes extremely fœtid. The liquor may be thrown over the plant with a watering pot, or branches may be dipped in it. Two ounces of nux vomica, boiled with the ſulphur, will increaſe the effect.

M. Hauy's explanation of the theory of cryſtals, is incapable of abridgment, though of conſiderable importance. A tranſlation of it has been given in a periodical publication.

M. Deyeux's comparative trials with the milk of two cows, fed ſucceſſively upon graſs, and the ſtalk and leaves of maize, cloſe the ſeventeenth volume. The difference was not conſiderable. The fibrous part of the milk ſeemed leſs in proportion. The butter was not in leſs quantity, but it was taſteleſs. The ſaccharine part of the milk was in a larger proportion. Our author thinks theſe experiments favourable to the uſe of the leaves and ſtalks of maize, at a time when the uſual fodder is ſcarce.

In entering upon the eighteenth volume, we meet with ſome experiments by Van Mons, in anſwer to ſome German chemiſts, who contended that mercury, calcined without the acceſs of the external air, did not contain any oxygen, and that this principle, therefore, was not eſſential to its ſtate of calx: conſequently, a part of M. Lavoiſier's ſyſtem was contradicted. The obſervations of Gren and Weſtrumb were found to be fallacious by the French chemiſt.

M. St. Real's memoir on the means of rendering leather impermeable to water without any alteration of its ſtrength or its ſuppleneſs, and without a great increaſe of its price, contains the art of tanning and currying, with ſome improve-

ments.* According to this writer, almoſt the whole ſubſtance of the ſkin of a calf, when freſh, conſiſts of animal jelly: of fourteen ounces more than nine are gelatinous, and the fibrous part is not equal to four drachms and a half. The object of the tanner is to ſeparate the jelly and mucous parts, and, by the aſtringent power of the gallic acid, to draw the fibres more cloſely together, and contract them in every direction. M. St. Real's great principle of improvement conſiſts in macerating the ſkins in warm water of 60° of Reaumur's thermometer. This is the method practiſed in Sweden, where the leather is of an excellent kind. It is the buſineſs of the currier to diſcharge the tan that is left in the leather, to fill the pores with oil, and, by preſſure, beating, cutting, &c. to bring the leather to an equable conſiſtence, a firmneſs of texture, and a ſmoothneſs of ſurface.

The analyſis of the ſalſola ſoda of Linnæus, by M. Vauquelin, deſerves notice. It is the plant from which the barilla is procured; and the ſalt is not the produce of fermentation, but exiſts formally in the vegetable. In other reſpects, it approaches an animal nature, ſince it affords the Pruſſian acid with the nitrous, a wax not unlike bees' wax, and, on diſtillation, a volatile alkali. No calcareous earth or vegetable alkali can be diſcovered in ſalſola; but a very large proportion of magneſia is found in it.

Profeſſor Klaproth corrects an error reſpecting the red ore of ſilver. This ore has, by the beſt writers, been conſidered as mineraliſed by arſenic; but, in reality, it does not contain a particle of this ſemi-metal. Regulus of antimony and ſulphur are its principal contents. The ſilver is in the proportion of 62 to 100.

M. Lowitz' method of purifying corrupted water by charcoal is ſufficiently known: after much diſcuſſion, its merit appears to be generally acknowledged.

Among the articles extracted from Crell's Chemical Annals, there is an account of a ſtone ſold at a very high price to an amateur, as pyrophanous. It was of a milky whiteneſs, with little tranſparency, but, on warming, reſembled a moſt beautiful topaz; and was ſaid to have been brought from Armenia. M. Sauſſure, ſuſpecting an impoſition, imitated it very exactly, by digeſting an hydrophanous ſtone for ſome time in melting wax.

M. Bonhomme's memoir on the rickets, in which he attempts to prove, that this diſeaſe proceeds from a defect of the bony earth (calcareous phoſphat), has been frequently tranſlated and analyſed in our language. There is no evidence that this phoſphat is the production of digeſtion or animaliſation. We know that it exiſts formally in the ſerum of milk, in the ſeminal liquor, and perhaps in the bile; but, in every

inſtance, it ſeems to have been introduced *ab extra*, changed perhaps in ſome of its properties by animaliſation; for we conſider the phoſphoric acid as one of the three mineral acids, perhaps the muriatic, changed by the animal proceſs. If therefore this ſalt is introduced with the food, rachitis muſt depend on diet; but any ſood with inactivity, and damp or cloſe ſituations, will produce it. It may be ſaid, that this ſalt is little calculated to paſs through the minute lacteals; but M. Bonhomme ſeems to have removed this objection, by mixing the calcareous phoſphate with the food of chicken, and finding in theſe the oſſification advance more rapidly than in others fed differently: this experiment, however, ſhould be repeated by other chemiſts, though we are more inclined to truſt to it from a fact mentioned by Fourcroy, which is not generally known. Near the time of delivery, the ſeroſity of a pregnant woman has a much larger proportion of this earthy ſalt than at any other period, and a ſmaller proportion of the more nutritious parts. But, at this time, all the bones are ſofter, and fractures are more ſlowly united, ſo that bony matter is certainly ſometimes abſorbed, and again depoſited; conſequently it is capable of paſſing through the minuteſt veſſels. In the cure M. Bonhomme ſeems to have ſucceeded by adminiſtering this ſalt; and he is, in this reſpect, collaterally ſupported by the experience of De Haen, who found that great advantage was derived from oyſter-ſhells, and by the practice of many perſons of the Boerhaavian ſchool, who have recommended abſorbents. On the whole, though we wiſh to keep M. Bonhomme's ſyſtem in view, as containing ſome important obſervations, we have no very high expectations of the ſucceſs of the plan.

A memoir by M. Hauy is judicious, as it leads to a more ſcientific mineralogical arrangement than has been yet propoſed. We may have occaſion to return to the ſubject.

M. Prelong's memoir concerning Goree and Senegal contains many curious circumſtances: we will ſelect ſome of the moſt intereſting.

'Senegal is a mere bank of ſand, nearly on a level with the river of the ſame name, which divides it into two parts, in 16° north latitude. Goree is a barren rock, high on the ſouth, and terminating in a tongue of low land on the north, in latitude 14° 40′. Goree, Magdalen, Cape Bernard, &c. are decidedly volcanic ſpots; and Goree affords excellent puozzolane. The heat of Goree is leſs than that of Senegal by about 3° of Reaumur; and it ſeems, in 1788, not to have riſen above 30°, though in general it is ſaid to be about 33°, and that of Senegal about 36°: at Podor, about 60 leagues from Senegal, the thermometer ſometimes riſes to 45°. The barometer, as uſual near the line, is ſtationary: the wind is moſt frequently

from the east; and the rain, annually, is little short of 60 inches: this chiefly falls from June to the middle of October, and so dry is the ground, that it soon disappears.'

The climate of Senegal is well known to be very insalubrious: three in ten Europeans annually die there, and two in ten at Goree: the most fatal time is during the rain. The colour of the skin of negroes, in our author's opinion, which is now the general one, does not depend on the sun, since, in the desert, where the heat is more intense, the black is softened into a brown. M. Prelong's comparative description of the Moors and the negroes, is interesting; and it coincides with the late representations of Mr. Park.

'The moral characters of these Africans (he says) differ as much as their colour; and, except in industry, the advantage is on the side of the negroes. These are in general of larger stature, and their forms are more elegant; they have a smiling countenance, and their looks are full of kindness. The appearance of the Moors is harsh, and sometimes ferocious. Their muscles are bold and strongly marked: their hair longer, and less like wool; their colour a reddish brown.

'If, in some respects, the Moors yield to the negroes, the genius and industry of the former compensate the inferiority. They understand better the working of metals; make, with the hair of camels, stuffs for their clothing; tan, in perfection, the skins of sheep and goats; and understand commerce with accuracy. If not always stronger than the negroes, they are more politic; they are full of deceit, while the negro is faithful and trustworthy. The ascendency which the Moors have over the blacks is surprising. One or two Moors may travel alone through the whole continent: they enter the cottages of the negroes, demand food, and often lay the host under contributions; but two negroes would not dare to travel, unprotected, through the great desert. This extraordinary ascendency does not solely arise from the superior genius or industry of the Moors. The latter are the missionaries of Africa: they introduced into this part of the continent the Mohammedan religion, mixed with foreign superstitions, which they have turned to their advantage. They call themselves the children of the God whose worship they recommend; and the negroes seem to adore them.'

Our author has examined many cameleons, and finds that they do not assume every colour; red in particular they never appear; but every shade of yellow, green, and grey, they occasionally assume. The last-mentioned hue is very deep, when they are ill or angry. They die if not regularly fed; their eyes project, and are very moveable, so that they see in every direction; and their skin is often changed. If we suppose that

they have generally two ſkins of different colours—one, for inſtance, of a clear yellow, and the other of a deep blue—and that the animal can at pleaſure conſtrict or ſeparate them—it will be eaſy to explain the various ſhades, ſince theſe ſkins are (ſome in a greater, and ſome in a leſs degree) tranſparent.

The negroes are in a ſtate of nature; and they are idolatrouſly fond of liberty. Their marriages are contracted with little difficulty; and the wives are faithful and affectionate. If the huſband's return from a journey is known to be prevented, the wife takes another huſband with little ceremony. For Europeans they have a reverential reſpect.

The eighteenth volume terminates with two memoirs of little importance; one on the ſubject of atmoſpherical heat, and the other on the ſtructure of the cryſtals of ſugar.

Les Petits Émigrés, ou Correſpondance de quelques Enfans. Ouvrage fait pour ſervir à l'Education de la Jeuneſſe. Par Madame de Genlis. Paris. 1798.

The Little Emigrants; or the Correſpondence of ſome Children; a Work written to forward the Education of Youth. By Madame de Genlis. 2 Vols. 12mo. 10s. ſewed. Imported by De Boffe.

THE commencement of this work correſponds with its title. Edward d'Armilly, a boy of the age of twelve years, is the firſt character introduced to us. His parents have emigrated, and are ſettled in Switzerland, while ſome of his family remain in France, and among them Adelaide, the heroine of the tale, which opens in May 1793. The ſentiments of his father may be known from his reply to a letter in which Edward had confeſſed ſome trifling diſobedience.

'Be always equally ſincere, my Edward, with your beſt and tendereſt friend; and you ſhall always find in him the moſt perfect indulgence. The only thing which can deeply wound the feelings of rational and affectionate parents is the want of confidence, becauſe an entire confidence is the only proof of a real and ſolid friendſhip.—During many years, my dear child, you will want a guide. Where can you find one more attentive or more zealous than a father? and how can we guide an individual who attempts to conceal his conduct? Ah; my ſon! never take from me the means of being uſeful to you. This duty, ſo delightful and ſo ſacred, I can only perform in concert with you: my ſingle will is not ſufficient to diſcharge it perfectly; you alſo muſt be reaſonable enough to join yours, and we muſt act together. But I know your heart, my dear Edward: a heart ſo ſimilar to that of Adelaide never will deceive me. Hitherto feeling has guided you well, and now reaſon begins to enlighten you: you can already com-

pare and reflect, and it is from that instant that we really enter on the career of life: you ought then to endeavour to perceive its object, that you may pursue and attain it. Open your eyes, my son! and you will see that object! Fortune has destroyed all the illusions which might have concealed it from you. Would you live to acquire dignities and riches? think of those which we so lately possessed, and see what is left. Do possessions so frail deserve that we should devote ourselves to the ambition of accumulating them? Would you live to obtain a great reputation and the love of your fellow-citizens? reflect on the inconstancy of the multitude, turn your eyes to Paris, behold the inconsistency and the absurdity of its unhappy inhabitants, and you will know how to appreciate the crowns that they bestow. Let the example of some of our compatriots teach you how fatal celebrity may be even when acquired with glory: a celebrated name in proscription is one misfortune more; even in peaceable times it attracts envy and hatred, and cannot escape the shafts of calumny. Great men have always been the objects of the most odious injustice: their contemporaries have never given them due praise except in their funeral orations. Profit, my friend, by the terrible events that are passing under your eyes; they are not historians unfaithful perhaps or ill informed who are speaking to you; it is the striking tablet of all the human passions that opens before you; and you may acquire in a few years the experience of ages. Be just and good—behold the only object of life, the only path of true happiness. The just man is religious, because ingratitude is the blackest injustice, and what gratitude do we not owe to the creator of the universe? The just man reveres, in his parents and in his instructors, his first benefactor upon the earth; he is a faithful observer of the laws, the friend of order and of peace; he serves his country with zeal, and his word is inviolable. If benevolence be united to this character, from this happy mixture springs the true heroism, which consists in performing generous and virtuous actions, not for the sake of applause, but with a view of becoming useful to others.'

This letter contains a few remarks upon some of his son's expressions, and on the spelling of several other persons; remarks which may be useful to children, but which, like the mis-spelled letters of Edward's correspondent, the reader would willingly dispense with. The book soon ceases to consist of the correspondence of children: other characters are introduced; and Edward d'Armilly, at thirteen, is old enough to be in love, and to become the friend and constant companion of lord Selby, an English nobleman of twenty-six!

The adventures of Adelaide d'Armilly form the most interesting part of the work. She emigrates during the worst

period of the revolution, and, by a variety of accidents, loses all traces of her parents. She comes in search of them to England with her governess, and supports herself by teaching the harp. She is of the same age with Edward; and the prematurity of character is less ridiculous in her sex than in his. The woman with whom she lodges plots to deliver her into the power of a Mr. Godwin; and this man, by affecting a monastic devotion and a sincere attachment, completely gains the confidence of the unsuspecting emigrant, whom he promises to accompany to Portugal, where he pretends that she will find her parents. His character, his arts and his views, are delineated in the following letter.

'At last, Nelson, the angel is in my toils! We wait for the wind; and very soon, when she shall be under my sole protection, and confined in a ship, her destiny will only depend upon me.

'I admire the moralising strain of your last letter: but what do you say of *corruption?* I *corrupt* Adelaide! love with-holds me: her virtue is part of her beauty; it is the purity of her soul which gives to her looks, to her smile, to her physiognomy, the seductive charm that has captivated me for life! Yes! I would always deceive her, and always preserve her character and her virtue; I will eternise her errors, and charge myself alone with every crime: this is my new plan, my last resolution. It is true that at first I had the vulgar design which you suppose; but I did not then know her; I had then only a fancy for her. I learned to my shame that one might easily deceive her, but that to corrupt her was impossible; her candour and rectitude, ever confounding my skill and the vile management of Purvis, baffled all our projects and defeated our most artful combinations.

'Che difesa miglior ch' usbergo e scudo
E la santa innocenza al petto ignudo. Tasso.

'Other females, Nelson, full of deceit and weakness, see the toils and suffer themselves to be taken. This woman, free from distrust and artifice, and guided by invariable principles and an angelic soul, did not discover or even suspect the grossest deceptions; and yet she escapes from every snare by the sole ascendency of perfect rectitude. Nelson, we cannot doubt that there is a sublime instinct which is a better guide than foresight and reason. Will you believe it? notwithstanding the success of my hypocrisy, I have clearly seen an invincible repugnance to me in the heart of Adelaide. I have easily excited her gratitude, and usurped her esteem and her admiration; but I have not been able to gain her tenderness. I was not surprised at her aversion for old Miller, who played so aukwardly the venerable personage of the pious Mrs. God-

win; but the adroit and handsome Betsy, under the name of Mrs. Stopford, had no better success; for, notwithstanding her wit, her flattery, her graces and caresses, Adelaide always treated her coldly. For my own part, I have more than once received proofs of her confidence, and sometimes of a momentary sensibility: but that pure heart which has nothing to conceal never opened itself to me without reserve: without knowing the reason, she has always feared me; I have always inspired her with an insurmountable embarrassment. O Nelson, the part of a seducer, which I have acted till now, ceases to amuse as soon as one is really amorous: I am so to madness; and for the first time of my life at *six and thirty!* What a disgrace—what degradation of character! what a reversal of ideas and feelings!—all that once delighted me troubles me now; and I have the weakness often to blush at my own success! I cannot describe what I feel when the incomparable girl, equally prudent, affectionate, and credulous, desired my *holy prayers* for her governess. She was on her knees at my side—I held her arm under mine—I cast a side look at her; her countenance was heavenly—she prayed! I thought I beheld an angel—I remained confounded and trembling before the God whom she invoked! my eyes were filled with tears—I felt a horror at myself!—What did I not suffer also at the time when I persuaded her to trust herself to my protection, and seek her parents? I saw her at my feet—she embraced my knees—I heard her melodious and affecting voice ask God to recall to me *in my last hour* the memory of what I had done for her; and in her error I thought she blest me! Yes, Nelson, I confess it, these striking words were heard in the very depth of my soul—I was on the point of betraying myself—I escaped. Her image, and my remorse, pursued me; I conceived the idea of undeceiving her, of serving her, of sacrificing myself. Love prevailed—fatal passion, which leads me to the crime that it teaches me to detest! But there is another passion more fatal and still more imperious, that which governs my execrable confidante—avarice. I could never discover the appearance of remorse in the soul of the abominable Purvis! The first night that I entered the apartment of Adelaide, while she slept in Sarah's room, I was seized with an universal trembling—it seemed to me that I was profaning the sacred temple of virtue! every thing retraced to me the sweet image of innocence—and hell was in my heart. Whilst Purvis with a bold air coolly ransacked the closets, I remained almost motionless. Purvis took from a drawer a little coffer on which a slip of paper was pasted with these words in Adelaide's writing, *what I have saved of most value.* Do you know, Nelson, what this coffer contained? some of the hair

of her parents, and a dried white rose pasted upon blue paper: these words were written below, *from the rose tree of Romeval*. The discovery of this innocent secret made Purvis laugh heartily. Vile and detestable creature! how does stupidity increase wickedness! Is it not a proof, Nelson, that vice is essentially absurd, since, to abandon one's-self to it without reserve or remorse, it is necessary to be reduced to the lowest degree of brutal degradation.'

Every thing from the pen of madame de Genlis bears the mark of genius; but this performance appears to us very inferior to any of her former works. A multitude of *episodical* characters are introduced, more frequently to prove the propriety of the author's sentiments, by the absurdities of those who differ from them, than to amuse the reader by any novel or interesting narrative. There is one great and leading absurdity in the story, an absurdity which would in any work have been ridiculous, but which is much more so in a book intended for children. Lord Selby, the English nobleman of six-and-twenty, who is entrusted with secret and important negotiations by the English government, falls in love with Adelaide, a girl of thirteen, whom he has never seen, merely from hearing of her perfections! Why will madame de Genlis, who writes for the instruction of young persons, pamper their imaginations with tales of romantic passion? for surely the mutual prepossession of lord Selby and Adelaide deserves that appellation. In one instance we must object to the morality of the writer—the countess de Lurcé, an emigrant, obtains, by passing as an Italian, a situation which no emigrant could as such have obtained. Politicians may hold the maxim, that deception is allowable; but it ought not to be taught to children. To the catholic superstition of the work we do not object; the author writes to people of her own persuasion, not to heretical critics.

There is a curious remark in one of M. d'Armilly's letters, which we extract on account of the note annexed to it. Juliette has been writing to him upon note-paper: 'it is impossible,' he says, 'to write well upon such paper; repetitions do not strike the eye, because, though they may be very near each other, many lines separate them. I have never seen any letters in this size which were tolerably written; and, without exception, all women whom I have ever known that write well, use only the common paper.' In the note, it is said, 'this observation is not so frivolous as it may perhaps appear; it is not my own; I heard it from the greatest writer of the age, M. de Buffon, who advised me, when I first began to publish, to compose only upon the large paper called *Papier*

a la Tellière. It was what he himſelf always uſed, and for the reaſon given by M. d'Armilly!'

The following anecdote (for it is the relation of a fact) muſt intereſt every reader.

'One morning, when we came to the mill, we did not find Lolotte, who was in the fields: while we were waiting for her, my father and I converſed with the miller's wife. I had brought ſeveral play-things for Lolotte; and the miller's wife, laughing, told me, that they would not pleaſe her ſo well as a little flour. 'How?' ſaid I. She replied, 'for three weeks Lolotte has cared for nothing but heaping up flour. Every morning ſhe comes to beg ſome of my huſband, who gives her a handful: beſide this, ſhe invents a thouſand little ſchemes to get ſome from me; and, when ſhe ſees me in a good humour, or when I careſs her, I am ſure ſhe is going to ſay, *give me a little flour*. The other day we had made ſome muffins, and I carried one to her: her firſt movement was to take it; then ſhe conſidered and ſaid, '*keep your muffin, but give me a little flour*.'—'This is odd,' ſaid my father; 'and what does ſhe do with all this flour?'—'She has aſked us for a large ſack,' replied the miller's wife—'and there ſhe puts it: the ſack is by her bedſide; and it muſt now be almoſt full.' During this converſation I ſaid nothing; but, reflecting upon it, and perfectly knowing Lolotte, I gueſſed the cauſe. I remembered that I had often come to ſee her with M. and Madame d'Ermont; that we had frequently ſpoken of France before her; that M. d'Ermont had mentioned the ſcarcity of bread, and had ſaid that the counter-revolution would be effected by famine. I doubted not that Lolotte's ſtore of flour had ſome connection with this: but, leſt I might be deceived, I kept ſilence. At laſt Lolotte returned from her walk; after having embraced us, ſhe ſat upon the knee of my father, who did not fail to queſtion her with regard to the flour. Lolotte bluſhed, and evaded anſwering, by ſaying he would laugh at her; but, when ſhe was cloſely preſſed to explain herſelf, I ſaw her countenance take that moving expreſſion which it always has when ſhe is going to cry; and then ſhe ſaid with a broken voice—'It is becauſe I knew that very ſoon there would be no more bread in France,—and I want to ſend a proviſion of flour for my nurſe Caillet.'

This is an intereſting anecdote; and we could ſelect more inſtances of goodneſs from theſe volumes, if our limits would permit. When the game laws were aboliſhed in France, the peaſants on the eſtate of Sillery preſerved the game for that reſpectable and unfortunate man. If the good actions which the revolution has occaſioned had been as carefully recorded as its atrocities, humanity would have leſs reaſon to bluſh at

its annals. One of the emigrants mentioned in theſe volumes ſays with truth; 'From the horror which ſo many crimes excite, you are inclined to believe, that morality and virtue are for ever deſtroyed in France; but, my friend, we ſee only the crimes, becauſe good works are done in ſecret.'

Traité Analytique de la Réſiſtance des Solides, et des Solides d'égale Réſiſtance; auquel on a joint une Suite de nouvelles Expériences ſur la Force et l'Elaſticité ſpécifiques des Bois de Chêne et de Sapin. Par P. S. Girard, Ingénieur des Ports et des Chauſſées. Paris. 1798.

An Analytical Treatiſe, by Girard, on the Reſiſtance of Solids, and Solids of equal Reſiſtance; accompanied with a Series of new Experiments on the ſpecific Force and Elaſticity of Oak and Fir. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Imported by De Boffe.

WE have not lately met with a work in the higher geometry and analyſis more worthy of our favourable report than the preſent performance. The analyſis is clear and exact, the hiſtorical part full and accurate, and the application of the reſults, to purpoſes of utility, judicious. The introduction contains a particular explanation of the works of geometricians and philoſophers on the reſiſtance of bodies, from the time of the celebrated Galileo. The facts are methodically arranged, and accompanied with juſt criticiſm; and ſome circumſtances in the hiſtory of ſcience, not generally known, even by geometricians, are communicated to the reader.—In this part of the volume, the author ſays,

'If in the theory of mechanics we are allowed to conſider levers, by which motion is communicated, as perfectly inflexible, the ſuppoſition is no longer admiſſible in the application of this ſcience to the calculation of the power of machines, ſince nature has formed no ſubſtance whoſe integral parts are inſeparable by the action of a given power.—There are conſequently two ſpecies of equilibrium to be conſidered in the lever, and the machines connected with it: one exiſts between the oppoſite forces, which counterbalance each other; and the other between a *certain function* of theſe efforts, and the coheſion of the parts of which the machines are compoſed. The conditions of the firſt may be preciſely determined; thoſe of the ſecond only by approximation. The reſiſtance, ariſing from the coheſion, is the object to be determined; and, for more than a century, it has engaged the attention of mathematicians and philoſophers.'

Galileo, whoſe thoughts were accidentally turned to this ſubject, ſoon determined, that the reſiſtance of a body to a

force, acting parallel to the fibres of which it is composed, was proportioned to their number—in other words, in the ratio of the density and bulk of a body. When it acted perpendicularly, the resistance was in proportion to the sum of the fibres, multiplied by an arm of the lever, which is always a certain part of the vertical dimensions of the solid, in the plane of its rupture. This hypothesis differs from others only in supposing the resistance of each fibre to be independent of the quantity of extension, at the moment of breaking.

The theory of solids of equal resistance, of which Galileo was the inventor, requires some explanation. The force of a power, acting on a body perpendicular to its length, tends to break it not only at the point of resistance, but at every section parallel to this base. Each section therefore must have dimensions adapted to its resistance. A fishing-rod, for instance, would break off close to the hand, if it were not enlarged at that part; and proportionally near it, if not suitably enlarged, to increase the resistance. This is a body which may be given as an example of equal resistance; and the object of nature is to make the bulk as small as is compatible with this proportional resistance in every part. In this, she succeeds completely. The feathers of winged animals afford a striking example of her execution of her purposes at the least expense. These, in beating the air during the flight of the bird, are exposed to the action of a pressure, which tends to break them at every point. They must therefore resist equally, with a force compatible with extreme lightness. It is consequently observable, that the axis of every feather is a solid, the bases of whose fracture decrease, according to a given law, from its origin to its extremity, or correspond constantly with a base of a fracture equal to 0, the characteristic of a solid of the least resistance.

M. Girard traces the additions and improvements which the discoveries of Galileo received from his successors, including the unequal contest between Marchetti and Grandi. Mariotte, in 1680, gave a new turn to the doctrine; and, not finding his results accord with those of Galileo, he suggested a new hypothesis. Leibnitz, however, soon reconciled these results; the difference of which arose from this circumstance, that Galileo considered bodies as inflexible, which, in reality, yield a little before they break. From that period, all bodies were deemed more or less elastic; and their resistance was calculated on this hypothesis—an hypothesis resting on the idea, that the resistance of fibres was proportioned to their extension. James Bernouilli examined this foundation with care; and, having observed that, at the moment of breaking, some fibres are extended, while the others are compressed, he endeavoured to prove (in a memoir published in

1705), that homogeneous fibres of the ſame dimenſions, charged with different weights, are neither extended nor compreſſed in proportion to theſe weights; for, if they were, he adds, in ſome caſes a fibre might be compreſſed more than its whole length, which is abſurd. On reducing this opinion to experiment, he found a ſtring of catgut three feet long, charged ſucceſſively with weights of 2, 4, 6, and 8 pounds, extended 9, 17, 23, and 27 lines, whereas, if the extenſion had been proportional to the weight, it would have been 9, 18, 27, and 36 lines. The ſyſtem of Leibnitz, therefore, was not more accurately true than that of Galileo; but it is ſo ſimple, and ſo generally conformable to phænomena, that it has been uſually followed.

Bernouilli alſo examined the curve, which an elaſtic ſubſtance forms in bringing its extremities toward each other; and he gave the equation of this curve in 1705. Euler improved on this diſcovery, and, in 1744, gave a ſolution of the problem, when the force acts parallel to the fibres; it was only known, when the power acted perpendicularly to them or in a given degree of inclination, This diſcovery was a corollary to ſome beautiful propoſitions on elaſtic curves; and the reſiſtance was found to be in proportion to the abſolute elaſticity, and in the inverſe ratio of the ſquare of the length of the ſolid, either priſmatic or cylindrical. It is remarkable that, when a weight acts parallel to the fibres, any curvature ſhould take place: yet the theory ſhows, that with a given weight ſome bending ſhould begin. This paradox Euler explained in 1757.

'His memoir is terminated by an inquiry into the reſiſtance of columns, which have no conſtant baſes of fracture between their extremities; an inquiry which might be uſefully applied to heterogeneous bodies, if it were not ſurrounded by ſo many difficulties.—This ſpecies of longitudinal reſiſtance, which the geometers of the laſt age ſtudied with ſo much care, will furniſh employment for thoſe who adorn our times.—M, de la Grange found exactly the ſame expreſſion for the reſiſtance of an elaſtic plate, preſſed in a direction parallel to its length, as Euler had obtained, when he began to engage in an enquiry, whether ſwelling a column about one-third of its height, according to the direction of Vitruvius, would contribute to increaſe its ſtrength. He firſt examined the curve in which it would begin to bend; and, by conſiderations drawn from the nature of integrations, by arcs of a circle, he found, that nothing would limit the points of inflection of this curve, if the force which produced it were equably applied. Submitting then his equation to a more rigorous examination, he ſhowed, that its greateſt ordinate was imaginary, when the weight on

the column had not reached a certain limit; and thus he deſtroyed the difficulty which Euler had felt and overcome, though without having offered any analytical proof.—He then inquired which ſolid of thoſe which were formed by the revolution of the ſections of a cone, had the greateſt reſiſtance parallel to its elementary fibres, its height and bulk remaining the ſame. He diſcovered that a conoid, produced by a revolution of a ſtraight line, poſſeſſed this property, and that among all the columns in the form of a truncated cone, thoſe whoſe ſuperior and inferior baſes were equal, were alſo capable of the greateſt reſiſtance. The method of variations, applied to the queſtion in its whole extent, gave the ſame ſolution; and it was clear that, if the enlargement of columns near their baſe gave a greater elegance of form, it added nothing to their ſtrength. The cylindrical figure, therefore, is beſt adapted to them.'

In theſe caſes the weight of the column was neglected; but Euler inveſtigated the height of a pillar, which would fall with its own weight. This height appeared infinite; but the concluſion was contradicted by his other inquiries; and he was obliged to examine the influence of ſome horizontal powers, which act vertically in occaſioning the inflection. He then found that the height was limited; and afterwards inveſtigated the limits. The intricate form of the expreſſion, however, has, we believe, hitherto confined it to mathematicians.

With regard to M. Girard's improvements upon the labors of his predeceſſors, we may obſerve, that, while the formula, expreſſing the reſiſtance of ſolids, given by Varignon in 1702, applies only to fractures, whoſe baſes are uniform and continuous, our author renders it applicable to fractures of every kind, whatever the baſes may be, and even to thoſe not compoſed of homogeneous ſubſtances. He has collected, from the hypotheſes of Galileo and Leibnitz, the reſiſtance of bodies in common uſe.—The reſiſtance of ſolids, which break at two points of reſt, he has alſo conſidered with care; and the reſults of the calculation are wholly conformable to experiment. The firſt ſection is terminated by a long digreſſion concerning elaſtic curves, which lead to the formula of the longitudinal reſiſtance of bodies preſſed onward in a direction parallel to the length of their fibres.

The ſecond ſection contains an accurate and complete theory of ſolids of equal reſiſtance. They are firſt conſidered as loaded tranſverſely, and their general equation is given, their own weight being allowed or deducted. This formula is applied to numerous bodies, the baſes of whoſe fractures have no determined relation. The writer then gives the equation of thoſe ſolids which reſiſt equally in the direction of their fibres;

and thence he deduces the decrements in the links of a long chain. Passing afterwards to solids, pressed on in a direction parallel to their length, he examines the form which adapts them to equal resistance, taking their own weight into consideration. This formula is applicable to columns, and is equally adapted to those which are composed of homogeneous and heterogeneous materials. This section concludes with a determination of the points of greatest and least resistance in bodies, whose resistance is not equal.

The last section contains, exclusively, M. Girard's experiments on oak and fir, to ascertain their respective resistances, when loaded either parallel or perpendicular to their length. These woods, charged in the direction of their fibres, have exhibited various appearances. Among them, the double inflection has been most frequently conspicuous. They have been chiefly considered as resisting bodies in a longitudinal direction, to ascertain their absolute elasticity, not only because its expression is an essential element in what relates to the weight which bends them, but because this expression contributes to assign the relation of the points of curvature to the weight which bends them when acting transversely.

In the theory of the resistance of bodies, the effect of the longitudinal cohesion of their fibres, which certainly increases the difficulty of bending them, has been neglected. The absolute elasticity of bodies, which, in the hypotheses of geometers, was supposed to depend wholly on the bases of their fractures, must consequently be, in part, connected with the length of their integrant fibres. The function of this length, which represents the longitudinal cohesion, is therefore investigated, to ascertain their absolute, *specific*, elasticity.

As these experiments were pursued at different seasons, the author had occasion to remark the great influence of the different states of the atmosphere. This point has not yet been accurately adjusted.

These sections treat of the resistance of solids in a state of æquilibrium with the forces which tend to overcome them; but this resistance is found to diminish while the charge continues to act, and the laws of dynamics must be employed to ascertain the circumstances of the inflection. Bodies being supposed perfectly elastic, an almost indivisible instant is required for very minute inflections. If therefore the inflection continues, it must be because bodies are *imperfectly* elastic; and the imperfection consists in this, that instead of remaining constant, it loses every moment a portion of its energy. By means of this supposition, M. Girard has ascertained a ratio between the points of curvature and the continuance of the inflection. The difficulty at present consists in ascertaining

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the loſs of the elaſticity, which requires more extenſive and more accurate obſervations. The details of the experiments, compriſed in tables, are ſubjoined.

Schilderung der Gebirgsvölker der Schweitz. Von J. G. Ebel.

Deſcription of the Inhabitants of the Mountains of Switzerland. Vol. I. with ſix Plates. 8vo. Imported by Eſcher.

AMONG the many prejudices to which individuals are ſubject, one of the ſtrongeſt is that which attaches them to their native country. This predilection, if it be kept within due bounds, may ſometimes be converted to uſeful purpoſes; but, when it leads us to a contempt of other nations, it ought to be ſtigmatiſed as weakneſs and folly. The French formerly gloried in their *grand monarque:* they have now changed the terms, but not their vanity; and the *great nation* is a title under which they claim pre-eminence over their neighbours. It will perhaps be difficult to find any country without ſome reaſons to be alleged in favour of its conſtitution. That which to others may appear extremely abſurd, may be limited by various inſtitutions capable of correcting in practice the errors of a pernicious theory. Theſe obſervations occurred to us on reading this intereſting account of the canton of Appenzell; for to this canton the greater part of the volume is appropriated. The manners, conſtitution, religion, and hiſtory of this people, are ably diſcuſſed; and the writer enlivens his work with a variety of anecdotes which he learned in the country itſelf.

This ſmall canton, before the late revolution in Switzerland, exhibited the picture of a perfect democracy. It was divided into two parts, the catholic and the proteſtant, united in many reſpects, but having complete ſovereignty in their reſpective domains. The foundation of the conſtitution was the ſovereignty of the people; and this was not merely an abſtract idea, but was realiſed in practice every year. The people in each diſtrict met annually to enact laws, to elect the officers of ſtate, and to form alliances. Every man above the age of ſixteen had a vote in this aſſembly, and was eligible to the higheſt office. The oath of allegiance was to the ſovereignty of the people; and a breach of that oath appeared as traitorous as the dereliction of allegiance in others to a crowned monarch. The idea of that ſovereignty was rooted in the mind of the inhabitants, and ſtrikingly influenced their language and behaviour. 'Who is the prince of this country?' ſaid our author to an Appenzeller whom he overtook on the road. 'We are a free people;' was the anſwer. 'But how can you be governed without a king, a prince, or a lord?' 'We

are a free people,' he replied; 'we know no lord, but one in heaven.' It is uſeleſs to reaſon with them on this point. 'We were freed,' they ſay, 'by the favour of God and the ſtrength of our arms;' and, lifting up their arms, they teſtify by their countenances their diſſatisfaction at any arguments againſt their ſuppoſed natural rights.

This idea naturally forms a character which is a ſtrong contraſt to that of their German and moſt of their Swiſs neighbours. A conſiderable degree of inequality prevails both in real and perſonal property, but none in rank. At one time, the landamman, or firſt executive magiſtrate, was a carpenter; at another, that officer was an innkeeper: but they were both men of extraordinary merit. To preſerve the popular ſovereignty, the magiſtrates are annually choſen; their ſalaries are too trifling to excite ſtrong competition; and they have no means of creating an influence by places and penſions. A people with ſuch ideas could only have been formed from a remarkable coincidence of circumſtances and ſituations. The diſputes of emperors, biſhops, and feudal lords, gave them, in the early part of the fifteenth century, an opportunity of profiting by their mountains, and freeing themſelves from a foreign yoke. They proclaimed, that men were made for order, not for ſlavery; that they muſt chooſe their rulers, and no longer be the ſlaves of lords. They added, that every man had a right to freedom as ſoon as he felt and could maintain it; that the free man brought the right of freedom on his land; and that, on the contrary, the land could do nothing to make him ſerviceable to a free people. With theſe notions they defended themſelves againſt their former maſters, and formed a democracy which long ſubſiſted in full vigor.

In politics the two parts of the canton agree, in religion they differ conſiderably; and, by all accounts, as well as our own ocular obſervation, the catholic diſtrict is inferior to that of the proteſtants, in wealth, in induſtry, and in cleanlineſs. In both parts, the ſentiments of honour are correct; and the ſternneſs and ſeverity of democracy are ſeen in the ſtrictneſs of their attention to morals. Their laws are not ſo much to be ſought in folios, as in the hearts of the people; and on this point our author makes ſome good obſervations. 'Their laws are not printed. Manuſcript copies of them are to be found in the hands of ſeveral, but not, as might be expected in a republican ſtate, of all the people. Hence each Appenzeller is not ſo well acquainted with the laws of his country as with the unintelligible queſtions and anſwers in the theological catechiſm, with which his memory is ridiculouſly burthened from his childhood. Not laws, but a habit and formation of morality grounded on reaſon, make men virtuous. In

a well-regulated ſtate, the gates and doors are not to be covered with laws and commands; but the ſouls of the citizens are to be inſpired with a love of juſtice. Hence moral education is of the greateſt importance.'

The Appenzellers are diſtinguiſhed for their openneſs, frankneſs, and (a quality in which they more reſemble the Engliſh than any other nation) good humour. Knowledge has not made much progreſs amongſt them; yet there are in their hiſtory many ſtriking inſtances of their good ſenſe, unaided by learned diſquiſitions. At the time of the reformation, they were warned againſt the introduction of hereſies; and much labour might have been employed on this ſimple people, if they had not, at their general meeting, adopted the following reſolutions: 'That the prieſts ſhould teach and preach nothing inconſiſtent with the ſcripture or with truth; that whoever ſhould preſume to teach otherwiſe ſhould be interdicted from all food and from all protection, and driven out of the country; and that, in all aſſemblies of communicants, it ſhould be maintained that in religious affairs the minority ſhould ſubmit to the majority; but that no community ſhould, on this account, ſpeak againſt or offer any obſtruction to another.' From this time the ſuperſtitious catholics and more enlightened proteſtants lived in harmony, though eagerly tenacious of their reſpective opinions.

Living amidſt mountains, each, in a great meaſure, inſulated in his own little domain, conſiſting of a few paſtures, with a right of commonage in the neighbouring Alps, they were able, for nearly four centuries, to preſerve their conſtitution, and, in late years, to introduce a degree of wealth and affluence which ſome would have deemed incompatible with their manners and government. From a paſtoral life they turned their attention to manufactures; and, on their bleak mountains, performed with eaſe what many monarchs had in vain attempted in their own territories. The manufacture of cotton flouriſhed with them in a high degree. Many of their manufacturers had correſpondents in Ruſſia, Spain, and Italy. They exemplified in the ſtrongeſt manner the anſwer of the Bourdeaux merchant to Colbert; *laiſſez nous faire*—leave us to ourſelves. No premiums were requiſite where no prohibitions ſubſiſted. The cotton was brought into the canton; and the mountaineers, after ſpending part of the day on a rugged eminence, employed the remainder at the loom.

On the manufacturing ſpirit of this canton, we have the following judicious remark:

'We can by no means confute the conjecture of an obſerver, that the ſpirit of manufactures and trade muſt have

had ſome influence on the manners, ſentiments, and character of the Appenzellers; but ſtill it has not been attended with thoſe great and general vices which have been remarked in other countries to be the uſual conſequences of a ſpirit of gain. To fathom the reaſons of this phænomenon, would be in many reſpects of great importance. From my reſearches, the principal cauſe ſeems to me to lie in their conſtitution, which maintains civil and political liberty, and is the ſtrongeſt remedy againſt rank or the ſpirit of caſts, with which riches have hitherto been generally ſo far attended, as to produce much moral evil, deſtructive of the true welfare of mankind. It is true alſo, that pure morals and an incorrupt character are beſt preſerved when the inhabitants of a country are not crowded too cloſely together, but are accuſtomed to live ſeparate. The villages of the proteſtant Appenzell conſiſt only of from forty to fifty houſes: the other families belonging to each community or pariſh live within a circuit of ſix to twelve miles, each in the midſt of his meadows. Beſides, they are not merely manufacturers; for the greater part of them poſſeſs a little property, take care of a few goats and cows, and divide their time between the buſineſs of the herd and the loom.'

Profeſſor Meiner, whoſe letters on Switzerland are eſteemed, is leſs favourable to the Appenzellers than the author of the work before us; but it is certain that he made fewer obſervations on them; and, remaining only a ſhort time amongſt a people whoſe modes of thinking were a contraſt to thoſe in which he had been educated, he was perhaps incapable of doing them ſtrict juſtice. Some of his objections are well anſwered; particularly, his complaint reſpecting the allowance of the right of voting to lads of only ſixteen years of age. 'Had he' (ſays our author) 'ſpoken as the thing really is, he muſt have made a different impreſſion on his readers. The lads of ſixteen years of age make between a twentieth and fiftieth part of that aſſembly which treats of things prepared and conducted in general by the ſupreme council—affairs which are ſeldom very intricate, and require only plain common ſenſe. At any rate the imperfection does not ſeem to be ſo great when lads of ſixteen form a ſmall part part of the legiſlative body, as when a lad of ſixteen or fourteen years of age may alone give laws, and make or unmake at pleaſure the ſuperior council.' This is true; but an attentive reader of hiſtory will obſerve, that democracy and monarchy in many reſpects come near each other; and the caprice of an aſſembly may ſometimes be as fatal to liberty and juſtice as that of a tyrant. A ſtriking inſtance is given in this hiſtory, where, contrary to all law and juſtice, the aſſembly ſanctioned the depoſition and the conſequent murder of a virtuous landamman.

To those who are desirous of forming true notions of a simple people, and of the effects of pure democracy, this work will be particularly useful. It contains a great number of facts, and a very good view of the constitution and laws of the Appenzellers. It is improper, however, to draw general conclusions, either in favour of democracy or against it from this instance of a people living under such a form of government for so great a length of time. The situation of the people must be taken into consideration; and, from an attentive examination of the effects of monarchy in so large a country as China, and of democracy in so small a state as Appenzell, a striking contrast might be drawn, which would extend the present limits of political knowledge.

Opuscules Chymiques de Pierre Bayen, Membre de l'Institut National de France, &c. Paris. 1798.

Chemical Works of Peter Bayen, Member of the Institute. 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 14*s. sewed.* Imported by De Boffe.

BAYEN was a chemist of the old school; but this circumstance does not detract from his merit. Diligent, exact, and faithful in his reports, he has considerably added to the stock of our knowledge; and we have only occasion to regret that his active and useful life left him too little leisure to extend the sphere or protract the duration of his instructions. By a perusal of his pieces which now appear, we are induced to wish that he had written more.

This edition was prepared by his nephew P. Malatret, who has added some particulars to the Eloge written by M. Parmentier. We are informed by the encomiast, that Bayen, in his infancy, loved the country, and amused himself with its labours; and that his attachment to chemistry arose from a common incident, not unlike those which determine boys to different professions: this puerile propensity is then called genius. In 1755, at the age of thirty, he was appointed chief apothecary in the expedition to Minorca; and he afterwards went with the army to Germany, in the same capacity. In this office he was diligent, ingenious in resources, when accidents or neglect had deprived the army or the hospitals of some useful article, simple in his manners, conciliatory in his address, and communicative. Like other communicative men, he was sometimes deprived of the honour or the profit of his own discoveries; and the following anecdote shows with what good humour he could notice this illiberal treatment. 'One of those men who are to the learned what the wasps are to the bees, had collected

from the converſation of Bayen ſome opinions, which he had the impudence to retail as his own. Bayen heard of the circumſtance, but he only ſmiled, diſdaining to cry out 'ſtop thief,' as many would have done. The ſame man, who had found the advantage of a harveſt where he had not ſown, returned to pillage a field too fertile to be ſoon exhauſted. Bayen, without heſitation, communicated whatever his viſitant wiſhed to know; but, when the paraſite, contented with his ſpoil, was overpowering him with thanks, and preparing to quit him, the chemiſt, with his uſual ſimplicity, ſaid, "You did not know then what I have mentioned?" "No—I was completely ignorant of it."—"I have now," added Bayen, "a favour to aſk of you, that, when you ſhall have reached the bottom of my ſtaircaſe, you will not ſpeak of yourſelf as having aſcended it only to teach *me*."

M. Parmentier beſtows too great praiſe on common exertions of ingenuity; and it is exaggerated praiſe to ſay that Bayen had not been four days in a country without knowing it better than thoſe who inhabited it. The loſs of his remarks on Minorca cannot be great, if his accounts were ſo trifling as are here recorded from memory,—that the onions were large, tortoiſes numerous, animals in general ſmall, and the Minorquins fond of ſpices.

As a chemiſt, our author was ſedulous and perſevering; but unfortunately, during the reign of terror, 'when a barbarous deſtiny ſnatched Lavoiſier from the deploring ſciences,' Bayen burned his manuſcripts: a few detached notes only remain; and two of theſe we will tranſcribe, as the remarks are lively.

'Pauperis eſt numerare pecus.'—My father, though he was unacquainted with Latin, could tranſlate theſe words: "He who knows the number of his crowns," he would ſay, "is not rich."—My good father knew the number of *his*; and his ſon is equally wiſe in this reſpect.

'Whenever I made theriaca, I diſſolved my opium in Spaniſh wine, contrary to the uſual cuſtom of powdering the extract with other ingredients: I thought myſelf very clever; but I found it to be truly the practice of Andromachus.'

The modeſt, ſimple Bayen died at the age of ſeventy-three, without a ſingle enemy. When he was accuſed in a deſpicable pamphlet, together with his collegue, of prejudices in favour of the *ancien régime*, he ſaid to his ſecretary, 'write in the margin,—they have indeed two prejudices, which they inherited from their parents, and which they will always preſerve: one is to excuſe fools; the other, to pardon raſcals.'

From what M. Malatret has added, we find, that Bayen was educated at Troyes, according to the severe system of Port-Royal. His imagination, repressed in his youth, did not dazzle in riper years. The best part of Homer, in his opinion, was the description of the gardens of Alcinous; the best work of Hesiod, the Εργα και Ἡμεραι. He derived from his instructors rigid sentiments of religion, which were not shaken by fashion or ridicule. Among the different branches of the *belles lettres*, he was fond of etymology; and one passage, which relates to this subject, we will extract.

'There are some curious etymologies, by which, as by a telescope, our horizon is greatly extended. The names, for instance, of the three quarters of the globe were taken from the Phrygian language, which was even anterior to the Celtic. Asia signifies the country of the Gods, and Asia was the cradle of all religions. Europe imports the country of men; and in no other part of the world are the strength and dignity of the human species so advantageously developed. Africa means the country of apes; and every traveller, every geographer, ancient or modern, testify that its woods are full of these animals.'

This may be styled fanciful; but what relates to physiognomy is more so. He considers Lavater's doctrines as uncertain, and thinks that no physiognomical writer deserves attention except Prosper Aldorisio, 'who first observed the relations which the organs of the voice bear to the physical and moral character of the individual.' This opinion he cherished with enthusiasm.

The earliest work of Bayen was an analysis of the waters of Bagneres, which contain much sulphur: this, at the source, is in a state of perfect solution, but it is deposited on mixing the water with a colder fluid, exposing it to free air, &c. He examines the silky, gelatinous depositions which are found when the waters are left at rest: they consist of an oily bituminous substance, while the pellicle, which rises on the surface, is vitrifiable earth minutely divided. He also treats of the saline efflorescences from the rocks in the neighbourhood of the springs: these are a true gypsum, containing also sulphates of alumine, of iron and magnesia.

The next essay is an ingenious and laborious examination of mercurial precipitates. In this inquiry, Bayen failed only in not examining the air produced, which might have led him, in M. Parmentier's opinion, to the discoveries that have added so much credit to Priestley and Lavoisier. Hales, however, knew, that the increased weight of oxyds arose from the air absorbed; and Mayow was convinced that air better than common air might be drawn from nitre; but they did not pursue

the hint; and Bayen's other labours might have equally prevented him from attending to the ſubſequent ſteps. In this eſſay, which was written about the æra of the firſt chemical revolution, we find the earlieſt doubts of the exiſtence of phlogiſton.

The firſt volume terminates with an analyſis of the mercurial ſyrup of Belet. This boaſted remedy is found to be deceitful; for it contains not an atom of mercury. It is pretended to be a ſolution of this metal in ſweet ſpirit of nitre; but, in the dulcification of the acid, the mercury is precipitated, ſince the acid has a greater affinity with the ſpirit than the metal.

The firſt memoir of the 2d volume contains an analyſis of an ore of ſparry iron, known in Germany by the name of ore of ſteel. Bayen found it to contain a carbonate of iron, joined with a little zinc; and; when examined in the maſs, it appeared, at different places, mixed with ſome quartz and calcareous ſpar. Bergman, who afterwards analyſed the white ores of iron, found no zinc; but M. Dizè repeated Bayen's experiments on a part of the ſame ſpecimen, and found that it included a portion of zinc.

A following eſſay contains an analyſis of marbles, porphyries, ophites, granites, jaſpers, and argillaceous ſchiſti. At the time when Bayen's labours on theſe materials commenced, little was known of their nature. One great object which he had in view, was to determine the durability of different marbles, when expoſed to the air. If experience has not aſcertained this point, chemical experiments will be of great ſervice, as the durability of marble, particularly when employed in public or ornamental works, is of no ſmall conſequence.

Various obſervations on manganeſe, pechſtein, and the different proceſſes to obtain the ſalt of wood-ſorrel, follow. The laſt labour of Bayen was an analyſis of tin, which had been nearly exploded on being ſuſpected to contain arſenic. Its innocence, however, is now completely eſtabliſhed.

Œuvres diverſes de Jean-Jacques Barthélemy. Paris. 1798.

Various Works of John James Barthélemy. 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 14*s.* *ſewed.* Imported by De Boffe.

THIS author is well known to the admirers of French literature; and his name will not ſoon be forgotten. Of learning, abilities, and taſte, he poſſeſſed a very conſiderable portion; and his private character did not diſgrace his literary fame. Having, on a former occaſion *, given a ſketch of his

* See our XVth Vol. New Arr. p. 517.

life, we ſhall paſs over the biographical and panegyrical accompaniments of the preſent publication, and proceed to obſerve, that all the pieces which theſe volumes contain are not new to the world.

The firſt piece is called a treatiſe of morals, and is divided, on the foundation of a paſſage in Xenophon's Cyropædia, into four parts—the duty of religion, regard for our parents and relatives, love of our country, and reſpect for our friends. The firſt head is ſuperficially treated: but we may quote the concluſion in approving terms. 'The Chriſtian religion, when diveſted of all the wretched additions and appendages by which men have corrupted it, is the fineſt ſyſtem of morals, and the moſt ſubſervient to human happineſs. It enriches the ſoul with every virtue: expands and enlarges it; fills it with love and benevolence; and procures it that ſweet, profound, unalterable peace, which makes us the friends of others as well as of ourſelves, and which the world can neither give nor take away.'—There is nothing ſtriking under the ſecond head. In the third ſection, active patriotiſm is enforced, and general propriety of conduct recommended. In the fourth, the writer maintains, that the underſtanding cannot be the only bond of friendſhip, as it is too jealous of ſuperiority; that the heart ought to be the only bond of union, but that its natural impetuoſity requires the control of prudence and judgment; and that a love of virtue and a conformity of character are the inſeparable and eſſential requiſites of permanent friendſhip.

The next piece is the romance of Carite and Polydore, which was firſt publiſhed as a tranſlation from the Greek: but this pretence deceived few readers. It is now more correctly preſented to us than it was before. It is a pleaſing and intereſting production.

A poem follows, entitled 'La Chanteloupée, ou la Guerre des Puces'—the Chanteloupiad, or the War of the Fleas. It is a lively burleſque piece, which will bring to the reader's recollection the Batrachomyomachia attributed to Homer; though it is not equal in merit to that poem.

The remarks on the journey of Meſſieurs Dawkins and Wood to Palmyra and Balbec, and on the publications of the latter of thoſe gentlemen, were firſt printed in the Journal des Savans: they are, for the moſt part, judicious. Other pieces inſerted by M. Barthélemy in the ſame journal are here re-printed.

The inquiries into the diſtribution of ſpoils among the ancients were produced by an application from Mr. Hans Stanley, the negotiator, who wiſhed for the removal of his doubts upon the ſubject. Our author thus ſtates the reſult of his inveſtigation.

'1. In the heroic ages, when the generality of wars had for their object not the acquisition of territory, but the avengement of insults; when soldiers, having no regular pay, could subsist only on the produce of depredation; and when the greater part of those combatants joined their commanders with no other view than that of providing a sufficiency for their support during the remainder of their lives; the general was accustomed to regulate the division of the booty. He distributed one part among the soldiers, reserved a share for himself, and kept the rest for the purpose of exciting emulation by occasional rewards. 2. When the troops had regular pay, the government seemed to have just pretensions to that share of the spoil which otherwise was due to the former. 3. This claim, however, was not established by law, if we may judge from the silence of the Greek legislators and orators. It never was so prevalent as to preclude the military leaders, on certain occasions, from distributing the booty among their followers.'

In treating of the particular customs of the Romans with regard to booty, the abbé endeavours to prove, that the chief commander had the privilege of disposing of it; that he was at liberty to dedicate to the gods, or appropriate to the embellishment of Rome, a portion of the spoil; that he was permitted to bestow a part on the troops, and keep a share for himself, and also to determine what amount or quantity (and, in the earlier ages of the republic, whether any part whatever) should be sent to the public treasury; but that he was ultimately obliged to give an account of his disposition of the booty.—The author did not complete his inquiries into these points; but he gave Mr. Stanley such information as the latter declared to be 'satisfactory and conclusive.'

These pieces are succeeded by 'Fragments of a literary Tour.' In the first of these fragments, an account is given of some well-known antiquities in the south of France. In the second, some ruins, supposed to be those of Tauroentum, on the coast of Provence, are described. Of the fifth fragment, a journey from Placentia to Bologna is the subject. Several of Correggio's pictures at Parma are particularised; and Barthélemy thus expresses his 'general idea' of that painter. 'He is delicate, graceful, elegant in the representation of heads, especially those of women, dexterous in grouping, true and strong in his colouring, and skilled in the art of expression, but frequently incorrect in design.'—A pleasing description is given of Bologna; but, as considerable alterations have taken place in that city since our author's visit to it, we may be excused from quoting any of his remarks.—The next fragment contains a short description of the gallery of Florence, begin-

ning in the ſtrain of a *virtuoſo*. 'Far be from me thoſe narrow-minded mortals who dare admire the conquerors of the earth; and far alſo from me be thoſe cold obſervers who are inſenſible to the pleaſing impreſſions which maſterly works of art are calculated to produce, or who feel no enthuſiaſm or vigour at the ſight of ſuch performances! Far be all thoſe perſons in whoſe eyes medals appear only as pieces of copper, paintings as canvas ſmeared with oil, and ſtatues as mere hewn ſtone. Here the grand ſchemes of the Egyptians are found united with the delicate taſte of the Greeks and the magnificence of the Perſians. Here private individuals, who became the fathers and the chiefs of their nation, collected the ſpirit of Greece when it was on the point of being extinguiſhed, paved the way for the revival of arts and ſciences in Europe, and made order, juſtice and truth, as well as commerce, flouriſh in their country, by a policy which coſt mankind no blood or tears. None but well-formed hearts can properly appreciate the merit of the Medici family; and none but thoſe who are inſpired with a true taſte for the arts (literally, 'bleſſed by the father of the arts') can properly view the beauties of the Florentine gallery.' At the cloſe of this piece, while the abbé boaſts of the ſuperiority of the royal collection of medals at Paris to that of the grand duke at Florence, he admits the inferiority of the cabinet of general antiquities in the former capital; at the ſame time recommending ſuch a concentration of the ſtatues and other remains of ancient times, as might at once exhibit models for artiſts, and attract numerous *amateurs* to Paris. He did not foreſee, that his countrymen, before the termination of the century in which he lived, would promote ſimilar purpoſes by a ſpirit of depredation, by robbing Italy of her faireſt works of ancient art.

The other fragments relate to the principal antiquities which our author obſerved in different parts of Italy. They do not require from us any particular remark.

The 'Reflexions upon ſome Mexican Paintings' afford a probable explication of the ſubjects of thoſe pieces. The 'Inſtructions for M. Dombey,' point out proper objects for the attention of a perſon preparing, at the public expence, to viſit Peru. The ſucceeding paper is a memoir read before the commiſſioners, appointed in the year 1792, to conſider of the beſt means of preſerving curious monuments or works of art.

The 'Sketch of a new Roman Hiſtory' exhibits, in a ludicrous point of view, the fables of ancient poets and hiſtorians. It firſt appeared in the Mercure de France, in 1792.

In the 'Treatiſe on Greek Medals' we have only a ſmall part of a very comprehenſive plan of medallic inquiry. From the execution of this part, we have reaſon to regret, that the

work was left unfinished. The instructions for M. Houel, (painter to Louis XVI.) who meditated a tour to Naples and Sicily, chiefly respect the same branch of antiquarian study; and, in a 'Memoir for the Regulation of the Royal Cabinet of Medals,' we find some judicious advice upon the same subject.

The speech of Barthélemy, on his admission into the French academy in 1789, has been separately published. It contains an eulogium upon the philosophical grammarian Beauzée, whose place he filled in that respectable society.

The second volume terminates with letters from the abbé to various friends, on points of antiquarian research, and with 'Remarks on the Rights enjoyed by ancient States over their Colonies.' In the last piece, he favors the opinion of M. de Bougainville, who, in a dissertation which obtained an academical prize, declared for the full dependence of colonial establishments.—Such are the contents of two volumes by which the classical student and the general reader may be entertained and instructed.

Correspondence Secrète de Charette, Stofflet, Puisaye, Cormatin, d'Autichamp, Bernier, Frotté, Scépeaux, Botherel, &c. Paris. 1799.

The secret Correspondence of Charette, Stofflet, Puisaye, Cormatin, d'Autichamp, Bernier, Frotté, Scépeaux, Botherel, &c. followed by the Journal of Olivier d'Argens, and the political and civil Code by which La Vendée was ruled during the Rebellion. Printed from the Originals, seised by the Armies of the Republic. 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 10*s. Sewed.* Imported by De Boffe.

THIS work does not answer our expectations; for many uninteresting papers are inserted in it; and one volume would have contained all that were worthy of being published. The vain schemes of the insurgents, and the common news of the day, cannot command the attention of the reader, accustomed in the present times to a rapid succession of events of real importance. We shall, however, translate a few of the most striking passages, rather for the amusement than for the instruction of our readers.

'General Souwarow to M. de Charette, generalissimo of the troops of the king of France, at his head-quarters.

'Hero of La Vendée! Illustrious defender of the faith of thy fathers, and of the throne of thy kings! Health.

'May the God of hosts perpetually watch over thee! May he guide thine arm through the numerous battalions of thy foes, who, marked by the finger of that avenging God, shall fall dispersed, like leaves blasted by the north wind!

'And you, immortal Vendeans! faithful preservers of the honour of the French, worthy companions in arms of a hero, under his guidance again raise the temple of the Lord, and the throne of your kings. May the wicked perish! May their very footsteps be effaced! Then may beneficent peace return, and the ancient stem of the fleur-de-lis, now bent before the tempest, arise amidst you, more beautiful and more majestic.

'Brave Charette, honour of French knights, the universe is full of thy fame. Europe contemplates thee in astonishment; and I admire and congratulate thee. God cherishes thee, as heretofore he did David, for the punishment of the Philistines. Adore his decrees. Fly, attack, strike! and victory will follow thy steps.

'Such are the wishes of a soldier, who has become grey in the fields of honour, having constantly seen victory crown the confidence which he had placed in the God of battles. Glory to him; for he is the source of all glory! Glory to thee; for he loves thee. SOUWAROW.

'This first of October, 1795, at Warsaw.'

This curious epistle, written amidst the carcases of the poor Poles, is accompanied with the following letter:

'The Marquis du Boscage to M. de Charette, generalissimo of the troops of the king of France.

'My general, Warsaw, Oct. 1, 1795.

'Being charged by his excellency, the field-marshal count of Souwarow-Rymnikski, with a flattering commission for a Frenchman, that of remitting his letter to you, I hasten, my general, to forward it, as the most worthy homage to your virtues and your glory, since it is the expression of the sentiments of one of those great men, whom nature only gives to the astonished universe in the course of many ages, afterwards reposing herself, as if fatigued with the magnitude of her own production.

'Twenty-four battles gained—the standard of the crescent humiliated—the Turk constrained to request peace, after losing a part of his territories—conqueror at Kinbourn, at Foxani, he flew to gather immortal laurels on the banks of the Rymnik, and thence to plant the standard of Catharine II. on the ruined walls of Ismailow. Conqueror of Poland, through the bloody ramparts of Praga, he entered triumphant into Warsaw, with the olive-branch in his hand. He flies, and victory follows his steps: never did any reverse of fortune

taint one leaf of his numerous laurels. By his victories the vast empire of the immortal Catharine is increased from west to south. With such a general, Catharine, that great and real *king*, may exclaim with Agesilaus, "the frontiers of Laconia are the points of the spears of my soldiers."

'Such is, my general, the hero who congratulates you. A profound judge of the art in which you have acquired so much glory, he has contemplated you, supporting with a firm and tranquil arm, in the midst of storms and tempests, the throne of the Bourbons, which reeled on all sides,' &c. &c.

(Signed) 'The Marquis du Boscage, superior officer of the body-guards of the French king, colonel of his cavalry, and now lieutenant-colonel in the Russian service.'

We proceed to extract the 'interrogatory of Charette, chief of the robbers of La Vendée, by Peter Perrin,' &c.

Question. 'What is your name, of what age are you, and what is your quality?

Answer. 'Francis Athanasius Charette of La Contrie, aged thirty-three years, native of Coussé, in the department of Inferior Loire, before the revolution lieutenant of a ship, now lieutenant-general, appointed by the king Louis XVIII. and lately chief of the royal army of La Vendée.

Q. 'Who appointed you chief of the royal army of La Vendée?

A. 'Louis XVIII.

Q. 'In what way, and at what time, did you receive this nomination?

A. 'I do not precisely recollect the time; but I believe that I received it about seven months ago, by means of M. Lefevre, an emigrant employed in the British service.

Q. 'You were then connected with Louis XVIII.?

A. 'It was through the count d'Artois that I received the said nomination; I had no direct connection with Louis XVIII.

Q. 'Was your correspondence with d'Artois very active?

A. 'No.

Q. 'What was the intent of that correspondence?

A. 'To impart to him the state of my army.'

From the interrogatory of Stofflet, it appears that he was aged forty-four years, a native of Luneville, and formerly in the military service.

We observe a curious letter of Puisaye on the resources of the insurgents; but it is too long for our purpose, and will not allow extracts.

The instructions of the marquis d'Autichamp to his son,

whom he sent into France, present a detail of the means employed by the emigrants to draw a part of their rents; for some of the stewards and tenants retained a faithful affection to their lords.

With respect to Cormatin we are informed, that he was a self-created baron (his real name being Desotteux), and the son of a village barber in Burgundy. Contriving to form an acquaintance with the Lameths, he joined the revolutionary party; but he afterwards thought that the opposite side presented the surest path to fortune.

Botherel, one of the Vendean chiefs, in a letter to the count d'Artois, says, 'After having calculated what can be done with the small fund assigned to us, we think that only three sous a day (three halfpence) can be allowed to each soldier, and twenty sous (ten pence) to each officer. But, that we may obtain more, we will not speak a word of this to the English government.'

We now pass to the second volume, in which we find little interesting, till we reach the 537th page, where the journal of Olivier d'Argens begins. In 1792 he repaired to Ostend, and joined the emigrant regiments which *attended* the duke of Brunswick in his invasion of France.

'Aug. 29. From Statbredimus to Roussy, by Rodemaker, a small fortified town. This was the day of our entrance into France. When we began our march, the greatest joy appeared in our countenances. We were all, or almost all, persuaded that we were about to march directly to Paris; that all obstacles would be easily removed; that the troops of the line only waited for our appearance, as well as the brave royalists in the interior, particularly in Bretagne, in order to join us in our march. The very day of our entrance into Paris was even fixed.'

The emigrants were so far in the rear, that they seem to have been strangers to the decisive events. Nothing of moment afterwards occurs in the journal of d'Argens till

'Oct. 4, at Mogeville: the 6th, we were near the village of Dieppe, where we remained from nine in the morning till three in the afternoon, waiting for orders to proceed to Verdun, and fight against the patriots. General Clerfayt demanded us from the king of Prussia, who refused him this last resource, saying, he would not expose such brave fellows as the emigrants were. The general had before requested the use of the Prussian artillery, as he had not a sufficient quantity; and, on the king's refusal, he desired that he would merely put his army in array of battle, and then leave the Austrians to engage the patriots. This also was refused; and

Clerfayt was obliged to recoil, and even to fight as he retreated; for the patriots did not ceafe to purfue him; but they fpared the Pruffians, their good friends.

'The 10th, from Mogeville to Foamé: during this march it was announced to us that we were decidedly retiring from the French territory. The 13th, at Granville; whence, on the 14th, we proceeded under the walls of Longwy. We ftopped for a quarter of an hour near the gate leading to the high road to Luxembourg. After this fhort repofe, we refumed our march; and, a quarter of a league farther, with deep regret, left the French territory, to go to Muffon, where we ftopped.

'In the fame degree as our entrance into France had been joyous and noify, our exit was melancholy and deplorable. Confternation and forrow were depicted on every countenance. Murmurs, bitter complaints, invectives, burft forth againft the king of Pruffia and the duke of Brunfwick, who had promifed to give battle to the patriots on the 27th or 28th of September, fome days before we left Verdun, after the Auftrian commanders, particularly Clerfayt, as well as our French princes and generals, had urged in ftrong terms the neceffity of a battle, and the infallible fuccefs that would attend it, and likewife the inevitable perpetuation of the troubles of France, and her incalculable misfortunes, if a battle fhould not take place. We talked of the conferences which Brunfwick held with Dumouriez; of the cries, "Long live the king of Pruffia! Brunfwick! the Pruffians, and the nation!" which had been heard in the patriot army after thefe conferences; of the fums of money which Dumouriez had fent, or promifed, to the Pruffian king; and of the flattering hope which had been holden out to Brunfwick that he fhould afcend the throne of France, in order that he might fell himfelf and his troops, as his father had done.'

In the code of laws, by which the government of La Vendée was adminiftered during the commotions, we find nothing particularly ftriking. We read of a military council, a commiffary general, divifionary infpectors, &c. At the end is an ample index.

Traité de la Gonorrhée et des Maladies des Voies Urinaires, avec un Recueil d'Obfervations Analogues, par F. Teytaud, Chirurgien. Troifieme Edition. Paris. 1798.

A Treatife of the Gonorrhœa, and of the Difeafes of the Urinary Paffages, with Analogous Obfervations. 8vo. 7s. *Sewed.* Imported by De Boffe.

THE rapidity with which this treatife has reached a third edition feems to favour the idea of its merit. Deftined, in our

situation, sometimes to direct the opinion of the public, on other occasions we can only confirm or oppose it. The latter is our present duty; for, after careful attention, we find the merit of the performance very unequal to that of many works in our own or the French language; and, from our experience, we are obliged to pronounce some of the principal parts of the practice either inadequate or injurious.

In the introduction, M. Teytaud considers the origin of the venereal disease, which, in his opinion, is attributed to America without just grounds. This conclusion we have had occasion to examine and support; but the arguments of the present writer do not add to the evidence. Medicine, he remarks, was useless in this disorder, until Berenger de Carpi employed mercury.

'It is a received opinion, capable of demonstration at this time, that the venereal virus coagulates and inspissates the fluids, retards their motion, particularly in the glands, and, by its acrimony, irritates and inflames them: the inflammation may be followed by suppuration, induration and gangrene. As mercury can prevent these consequences, we may conclude that it is attenuating and incisive, and consequently capable of clearing the obstructed organs, provided the obstructing cause be not so much compacted, as to offer a greater degree of resistance than the sides of the containing vessels.'

We have extracted this reasoning, which will not be thought conclusive in the *latter* part of the 18th century, as, on these principles, our author explains the action of sudorifics, the 'aperitive, attenuating and nitrous plants,' and even opium. But, though these medicines succeed with syphilis, they are not equally effectual in gonorrhœa, a disease which M. Teytaud considers, with many of our elder practitioners, as the same with syphilis, and as often arising from a suppression of the local discharge. On this subject also, his arguments are not cogent.

The consequences of gonorrhœa are our author's chief objects, particularly in the diseases of the urethra; and, in his introduction, he traces the use of bougies, and their various substitutes, from the time of Ambrose Paré. He gives the preference to bougies, and, of course, to his own. He denies that they act mechanically, and recommends in different cases two kinds—the suppurative, which also destroy caruncles, and the detersive. He sometimes employs bougies of a more solid consistence, which he calls *sondes bougies*. These are made of elastic gum, with a stratum of the bougie composition; they are perforated, to allow the passage of the urine, and may be worn for many days successively.

A description of the sexual male organs and urinary passages, and a physiological account of their functions, are after-

wards given. The diſeaſe is next noticed; and its ſubdiviſions are uſeleſsly numerous. Its ſeat, our author thinks, is in that part of the urethra where the canal begins to enlarge; but this opinion is improbable. The firſt impreſſions of virus are, he imagines, on the foſſa navicularis. In the cure, his firſt plan is of the mild antiphlogiſtic kind, with mucilaginous injections. Bleeding and purgatives are employed in the more violent caſes. When the complaint has continued about two months, he employs bougies. When the gonorrhœa becomes chronical, he thinks mercurials uſeleſs.

We cannot follow M. Teytaud in his enumeration of the different kinds of chronic gonorrhœa. In ſtrictneſs of ſpeech, there is one ſpecies only, proceeding from a relaxation of the glands of the urethra; the others are ſymptoms of different diſeaſes. Indeed our author's principal remedy, the bougie, is chiefly adapted to tumours and ulcers in the urethra, and only perhaps, as an irritating body, to the real cauſe of chronic gonorrhœa, relaxation of the glands. The receipts for each kind of bougie are given. Thoſe of the ſuppurative kind contain ſome ſedative and deobſtruent vegetables, particularly hemlock boiled in oil; but the parts which ought to be efficacious are covered with ſo much wax, and with plaiſters of ſo many different kinds, that their utility is greatly diminiſhed. Some turpentine and fixed alkali are at laſt added, which may render them, on the whole, ſtimulant. The deterſive and deſiccative bougies are ſtill farther loaded with wax, with the addition of ſperma-ceti, white lead, and Venice turpentine, in trifling and uſeleſs proportions.

This writer thinks, that the hernia humoralis may, in ſome inſtances, be venereal; but it is certainly very ſeldom ſo. As it comes on in conſequence of the ſuppreſſion of a gonorrhœal diſcharge, irritating bougies may, in his opinion, be uſeful in reſtoring it. His bougies, however, will irritate very ſlightly except from mechanical diſtenſion.

The diſeaſe, as occurring in females, is conſidered at ſome length; but we cannot extract from this part a ſingle remark of importance; nor does it contain any eſſential error. The diſtinction between gonorrhœa and leucorrhœa, is examined with a tireſome diffuſeneſs, and loaded with ſuch numerous diagnoſtic marks as to confuſe rather than inſtruct the young practitioner.

The moſt valuable part of the work relates to the diſeaſes of the urinary organs, particularly the difficulty of diſcharging the urine, in conſequence of a previous inflammation of the urethra. From the cauſes of ſtrangury, M. Teytaud excludes fungous carnoſities.

'We muſt conclude, from the anatomical obſervations which I have myſelf made, and thoſe of the moſt exact diſſectors, that to attribute ſtrangury to a cauſe ſo equivocal, is

an insult to ourselves and the public. It is to bad or irregular cicatrices, to hard and callous ulcers, either with or without a discharge, to a varicous enlargement of the spongy substance of the urethra, to a scirrhosity of the prostate or other glands, or to a lymphatic swelling of these glands or their ducts, that we must attribute a permanent contraction of the urethra. It has been also said, that an inflammation of the testicles may produce strangury; but I consider this as a very rare cause.'

'These (contractions) are sometimes situated in the fossa navicularis, sometimes at about two fingers' breadth below. Sometimes they occupy two or three parts of the canal, resisting more in some points than in others. I have often found them near the bulb, and on the verumontanum: these have often occasioned much difficulty, and compelled me to have recourse to the catheter, however difficult the operation was. But I have always found them more unmanageable, in proportion to their vicinity to the prostate gland, particularly when they render it scirrhous.'

The bougie is the remedy for all these complaints; and our author's management of it is the most useful part of the work. It must, however, be read in his own words.

The formulæ which are subjoined deserve little commendation, as they are in general trifling, and are overloaded with useless ingredients. It ought to be added, that thirty-four cases are given in the volume.

Mémoires Politiques et Militaires, pour servir à l'Histoire secrète de la Révolution Françaife, &c. Paris. 1799.

Political and military Memoirs, illustrating the secret History of the French Revolution; derived from manuscript Memoirs of several Generals, Commanders of Towns, Spies, and secret Agents in France and other Countries. 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 10*s.* *Sewed.* Imported by De Boffe.

THIS is an amusing and interesting work; but we should have perused it with more confidence and satisfaction, if the sources had been more clearly indicated. As we live under the reign of political falsehood, and fanaticism is found in all parties, a lover of truth cannot be too much on his guard against anonymous information; and the compiler of this work has thought proper to conceal his name. Such being the case, it is scarcely necessary to warn our readers, that our extracts from this work are rather intended to variegate our pages, than to assume the solemn character of historical facts.

The author affirms, that he has published from the very hand-writing of the actors, or from articles dictated by them;

and that he has even made expensive journeys, in order to illustrate great events. All this is easily said.

The first article is dated 1788, and is entitled 'Curious Dinner of Orleans with the ex-minister Narbonne.'

'There are two men (says this writer) whom an opinion almost universal has loaded with the chief guilt of the revolutionary crimes; namely, Robespierre and Orleans: and it is chiefly to their agents, to their friends, to their accomplices, that they are indebted for this monstrous celebrity. But with regard to them, as well as Louis XVI. we are ignorant of many particularities, necessary to form a more decisive judgement. An anecdote of this kind, relative to the duke of Orleans, has reached us; and we cannot doubt its authenticity.

'Towards the end of August, 1788, Orleans went to Metz, to review the regiment of hussars, of which he was colonel, and at the same time to visit the masons' lodge in that town. He dined at Narbonne's house with Durand-Dumesnil, colonel of that regiment, and with Biron. After the repast quantities of punch were imbibed; and the fire of that liquor soon favoured the explosion of secrets. "Do you believe," said Orleans eagerly, "that I can ever pardon that royal hog, for banishing me from his court, and stigmatising me, in the presence of his courtiers, as a drunkard and a glutton?"

'Biron then spoke: "And do you think that I can ever pardon the descendant of the assassin of my grandfather?"

"Do you believe," cried Narbonne, "that I can with cold blood see my mother exiled, for having given the best advice to the king? Do you believe that I will not support with all my strength the part that we must take?"

"Do you doubt, my prince," said Dumesnil, "that, while I remain colonel of your regiment, I shall ever hesitate to obey your orders?"

'This conversation was dictated to us by the general of a division now at Paris, who was present on the occasion, Narbonne having desired him to remain in the apartment.'

This may be true; but certainly nothing can have more of the dramatic air of fabrication.

In the next article we are informed that Narbonne was born in 1756, being the son of Louis XV. by his own daughter Adelaide! In support of this disgusting tale, the author proceeds to remark, that the birth of Narbonne was reported to have been at Milan, while the French troops were in Piedmont; that general Narbonne was so good as to pass for the father; that Adelaide supplied her son with large sums of money, especially during the encampment at Metz, where he gave an extravagant festival; and it was observed that the plate bore the arms of France, being that of his mother.

Adelaide, oppofing La Polignac, was obliged to leave the court, and fhut herfelf up in St. Cyr. This retreat irritated her fon againft its authors.

In the progrefs of the memoirs, the writer pretends to communicate the fecret articles of the treaty of Pilnitz, formed by the emperor and the kings of Pruffia, Great Britain, Spain, Naples, and Sardinia. 'It was ftipulated,' he fays, '1. That all republics fhould be abolifhed, even that of the United States of America, which fhould return under the Englifh dominion: 2. That the German princes, and all powers of the fecond and third order, fhould be defpoiled and degraded: 3. That Europe fhould be divided into fix powerful ftates; but that France fhould be annihilated.' This ftatement is furely felf-contradictory; for what were Naples and Sardinia but powers of the fecond order? We here find the wife reafoning of Barruel and Robifon, who make focieties, full of nobles and clergy, confpirators againft nobles and clergy!

The ftoppage of the king at Varennes is related at great length, and with probable circumftances. On arriving at Clermont,

'The appearance of the perfons in the carriage was this. The king had the air of a weary traveller; his features were not changed, and he appeared refigned to what might happen. The queen was in very ill humour, darted haughty glances, and faid nothing. Elizabeth was inflamed with anger; and upon her face were painted the different paffions of her heart. The two children, looking out at the door of the carriage, fmiled to every body. The dauphin had a kind of handkerchief on his head; and when he complained of it, as incommoding him by its heat, Elizabeth took it off without looking round, that fhe might avoid the eyes of the multitude.'

The extortion of the French commiffaries equaled or furpaffed that of the former robbers of the public.

'A French general officer, now a member of the legiflative body *, was buying fome cotton cloth, in 1792, at a mercer's fhop in Liege: while he was bargaining with two young female citizens, their father entered, and faid, "The bargain is concluded; and I fhall gain little. Each mufquet is to be 17 livres; and the fhoes are to be 4 livres 10 fous a pair. The fignatures of the reprefentatives are alone requifite." In the evening this officer was with Dumouriez, with whom were alfo Lacroix and Danton. The mercer made his appearance; the paper was figned, and put on the chimney-piece. On looking at it, the officer found each mufquet

* We fufpect Fregeville.

charged at 29 livres instead of 17, and the shoes at 7 livres 10 sous.'

It appears that the civil list of Louis XVI. in 1792, was chiefly employed in corruption. Mallet du Pan had six thousand franks for a counter-revolutionary journey. Court journals, hand-bills, spies, legislators (Mirabeau had thirty thousand franks a month), absorbed a prodigious sum. The author absolves Luckner, as no way connected with the court, and the mere victim of foreign intrigue.

The errors which occasioned the disgraceful retreat of the duke of Brunswick, are thus pointed out by our author. The first was his neglecting to take possession of the ridge of Bienne, between St. Menehoud and Clermont, the most essential position for his advance. Dumouriez availed himself of this gross error, and sent Dillon with 8000 men to seize this post, which was soon fortified with cannon, so that 25,000 men would perhaps have fallen in the attack, which Brunswick did not attempt.

'All the experienced officers in the French army then perceived that Brunswick fell far short of his reputation. A general said aloud, "If I had committed so gross a fault, I would request a court-martial, and would rather die than survive so clear a charge of want of common skill." The same officer, now a member of the legislature, communicated to us the preceding observations and details.'

The duke's second error is said to have been his conduct at the conflict near Valmi, on the 20th of September. At ten o'clock the action became general. Kellerman was on the right of the mill of Valmi; and the Prussian cavalry were arranged in three columns, near the road to Chalons. But such was Brunswick's want of skill, that, when the charge was sounded, the two first columns floundered into the marshes, near the castle. The generals of the coalition, 'without having ascertained local circumstances, without even maps or guides, had arranged their three columns in two positions, which the two first columns could not leave, without plunging into marshes.'

After this affair, if we credit our author, Dumouriez might easily have captured the king of Prussia, and all his army, in the camp of Lune, by cutting off his supplies from Verdun. On the 23d the troops were so ignorant of the capitulation, signed by the king of Prussia and Dumouriez on the 21st, that another battle was expected, when dispositions were made by Dumouriez to favour the retreat of the Prussians.

The articles of this capitulation our author pretends to re-

port, from the testimony of a general officer:—1. That the king of Prussia, on evacuating the French territory, should abandon the coalition: 2. That the son of the duke of Orleans should be placed on the throne: 3. That Dumouriez should be gratified with the sovereignty of Belgium, under the title of duke of Brabant. The writer justly avails himself of Clery's journal to deny that any letter was sent by Louis XVI. to the king of Prussia; and he affirms that nothing but a great object of self-interest could have induced Dumouriez to spare the Prussians, half of whom had been destroyed by famine and contagious malady.

'Nothing could be more horrible than the spectacle presented by the camp of Lune, after the retreat of the king of Prussia: our statement is derived from the commandant of the grenadiers who went to take possession. At some distance a pestiferous exhalation was felt: at every step were found carcases of men, women, horses, left where they had fallen through inanition or sickness; for the unwholesome food, to which necessity had reduced them, had caused a dysentery, which swept off thousands in a day. All that came from them seemed fire; no places were allotted to evacuation; the country was covered with infectious matter, the exhalations of which occasioned greater ravages than the dysentery itself; and the Prussians found their most cruel enemies in the carcases of their brethren. Our grenadiers would all have perished, if they had remained there twenty-four hours. The pestilence was so obdurate, that, three months after the camp had been raised, the administrators of the department, to stop its ravages, and accelerate the destruction of the carcases, demanded pecuniary succours from the convention, in order that ditches might be dug, and quicklime procured. The assembly granted forty-five thousand livres.'

We shall pass several curious and interesting topics, after repeating our wish that they had been more precisely authenticated, and observe, that women were employed in the armies, secretly to superintend the conduct of both generals and representatives. The native compassion of the sex, arising partly from a sense of their own weakness and peculiar sufferings, contributed to save many who would otherwise have fallen victims.

Our author asserts, that Dumouriez disgusted his army, and ruined his scheme of counter-revolution, by appearing surrounded with the dragoons of the prince de Saxe-Cobourg.

The sufferings of the French prisoners in the hospital of Pest, in Hungary, furnish several interesting pages: but we can scarcely give credit to the following passage.

'Among the prisoners brought to Hungary were about five thousand sick, whose sole nourishment was restricted to three prunes a day. These wretches died by hundreds. But, this kind of death appearing to their conductor too mild and slow, he ordered the three vessels, in which they were, to be sunk in passing the mills, which abound about half a league from Vienna.'

Other circumstances still more atrocious are mentioned; and more certain evidence is required before we can believe that any government can excite such fiend-like enmity. Pagans would shudder; and if such be the charity of Christians, of what consequence is their faith?

Speaking of the affair of Dunkirk, our author says, that the duke of York was securely encamped at Honscotte; and that the gens d'armes were obliged to wade, for half a league, up to the belt in water, before they could make the attack. A great part of the English artillery, 150 barrels of powder, and a quantity of baggage, were fruits of the victory. Houchard, by this account, was justly condemned, as he passed three days in utter inaction, when he might have captured the whole English force, which had no retreat, except by Furnes, a retreat easily cut off.

The second volume begins with details concerning the war between France and Spain. We may observe in general that this volume is not so interesting as the former; and our remarks and extracts will therefore be more concise.

Referring to the war of La Vendée, our narrator instances the burning of the suburbs of Nantes as a dreadful proof of republican excess. Three leagues around, nothing was seen but one general conflagration. Charette boasted that this useless act of cruelty had brought an addition of twenty thousand men to his army. Cruelty is always bad policy, and seldom fails to produce the very effect which it was intended to obviate.

'It is not without foundation that the war of La Vendée has been regarded as the most extraordinary which history has recorded. It was said, in classic fable, that the earth produced armies; but that was a poetical fiction: here the fiction was in some measure realised. The rebels had dug caves, into which they conveyed cannon, and in which they stationed considerable bodies of troops; here it was that the priests, monks, and robbers, concealed themselves; and hence they issued to assassinate travellers, and pillage convoys. They received their intelligence from men, chiefly clothed as woodmen, who mounted to the tops of trees, and by a whistle, which imitated the chant of a bird, made signals of the arrival of victims. Sometimes this bloody service was per-

formed by women who kept cows, by young shepherds, by children—for even the children were initiated in crimes.'

Morbihan was chiefly infested in this manner. One cave was discovered by Dardure, an officer, full of peasants, monks, and priests in their costume. An old woman watched near the entrance, which was concealed with turf.

The infamous St. Just, it is said, was fond of laconisms. He had ordered the magistrates of Strasbourg to be arrested, and sent to Besançon and Chalons-sur-Marne. General Dieche, governor of the city, was charged with the execution of that order. 'If to-morrow morning, at one minute before eight, they be not sent off,' said St. Just to the general, 'one minute after eight thou shalt be guillotined.' The next morning he sent a card to the general, 'Dieche, it is eight o'clock.' The answer was not less laconic: 'St. Just, they are gone.'

'On the 9th of Thermidor (27th of July), between seven and eight in the evening, a hackney-coach came to the gate of the guild-hall: it stopped, and a soldier left the carriage, and went to the committee of administrators of the police. He returned immediately with three administrators in their scarfs of office: one opened the door, and instantly a wild-looking man arose, who held a white handkerchief to his mouth, and with his elbows shoved those who were about him, that he might get out first. It was Robespierre. When he had overcome the resistance, he sprang into the court: he was pale, and feeble. An hour afterwards, Henriot arrived with his cavalry, to convoy him to the *Maison Commune*.'

The English, we are informed, owed Corsica to the treason of Paoli; but 'their gluttony, their debauchery, their impositions, entailed upon them the execration of all the inhabitants.' Bravo! The rest is yet worse. A christian priest without charity and a philosopher without candour, may be weighed together.

The author says of Buonaparte, that, fifteen months before he was appointed commander in chief, he imparted to one of the representatives a plan for the conquest of Italy. Colli, after his defeat, was heard to exclaim in a tavern at Turin, 'If I had been opposed to a man of thirty years' service!—But a child! a child!'

The following extract may amuse the reader with French ideas on recent events.

'For a long time the ministers of the British government in vain urged the Porte to enter into the coalition against the French republic. It is well known that they skilfully availed themselves of the expeditions of Buonaparte into Egypt, and still more of the destruction of our fleet near Alexandria, to

oblige the Grand Signor to declare war againſt us. But Pitt did not confine himſelf to diplomatic counſels; he rained gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, at the Porte. His politics are different from our ſyſtem.

'At the moment when, by a formal law, all kinds of Engliſh merchandiſe were prohibited among us, Pitt ordered from our manufacturers precious arms to combat us. In the ſtreet *** (why not name it, citizen?) an American company ordered a ſabre and a pair of piſtols, garniſhed with diamonds, and valued at five or ſix millions of livres (between 2 and 300,000*l.*) This preſent was for the Grand Signor.'

The author continues his *authentic* tale, by adding that this donative induced the Turk to engage in the war, and led the way to the preſent which Nelſon received; and that Pitt took this indirect ſtep, to prevent the open knowledge that the Turk was bribed, and to deceive the Engliſh people with regard to this extravagance! Did Mr. Pitt ever attempt to conceal his liberality of expenditure?

The ſtory of the Grand Signor and painter, our *learned* author ought to have known, is three hundred years old, inſtead of being, as he repreſents it, a tale of yeſterday. The note is equally abſurd; for ſmoking is ſo far from being an act of religion among the Turks, that it is of doubtful allowance; and the Grand Signor in courſe, as the head of their religion, never ſmokes.

The diſcuſſions concerning the iſſue of the conferences at Raſtadt, and the indeciſion of the emperor, are now rendered unneceſſary. The author ſpeaks of the preſent Italian potentates, of the diſpoſition of the Hungarians to liberty, of the Auſtrian terror at the French arms, of the Bavarian ſucceſſion, &c. but he forgets the main ſprings—the French uſurpations in Italy and Switzerland, which threatened Auſtria with danger. If the leaders of the republic wiſh for peace, they ought at leaſt to have offered the emperor a ſhare in their acquiſitions; but, ſtrangers to moderation, they ſeem to pride themſelves in creating enemies; and, by their conduct towards the Americans and the Swiſs, they have alienated the minds of the warmeſt lovers of freedom. A caricature might well repreſent England holding forth a purſe, with the words, 'I want friends;' and France a ſabre, 'I want enemies.' As the French are fond of Greek examples and apophthegms, it is ſtrange that they ſhould forget the ſaying of the Spartan king, 'My power is more limited, but it is more laſting:' or that of the Macedonian general, 'My ſon, make thyſelf leſs.'

After the preceding extracts, we need ſcarcely add, that this work contains many curious and important hiſtorical gleanings, concerning the moſt ſtupendous event in the annals of

man; but much judgment, we think, will be requisite in separating the true diamonds from the false.

Voyages sur les Alpes.

Travels over the Alps, by M. de Saussure. (*Continued from Vol. XXIII. New Arr. p.* 516.)

SOON after we last attended to the instructive pages of this able naturalist, the unpleasing intelligence of his death arrived. The hand of fate stopped his course, at a time when much might have been expected from his talents and his industry. This event, while it induces us to pass more slowly over pages which, unless there should be some posthumous pieces, will be the last, gives occasion for the introduction of a sketch of the events of his life, chiefly drawn from the Decade Philosophique, a respectable journal.

M. de Saussure was born in 1740; and, by a course of hardy activity, he laid the foundation of that robust health, which enabled him to bear the greatest fatigues. Botany was his earliest study, derived perhaps from the encouragement and example of Bonnet, who married his aunt. At the age of twenty he published some minute observations on the epidermis of the leaves of plants, and the glands immediately subjacent. He had scarcely reached his 21st year, when he was appointed professor of philosophy at Geneva, to give alternate courses of physics and logic with the professor of the latter science. In each he excelled; and some of the best philosophers of Switzerland were at this time his pupils. By their means, his fame had reached this country so early as 1769; and the disputants, in the Edinburgh societies, often felt their inferiority in close reasoning to the *elèves* of the young Saussure.

Experimental philosophy was his chief delight. This led him to the examination of the phænomena of nature on the highest mountains of Switzerland; and, from frequently exploring these, he was insensibly led to examine their internal structure. In this way he became a mineralogist and a chemist. His excursions in Switzerland were numerous, extending on one side to the Rhine, and on the other to Piedmont. He also visited France, Holland, England, Italy and Sicily, not with the trifling curiosity of a common traveller, but as a careful and attentive naturalist. In 1779, he published the first volume of his Travels on the Alps, and, in 1783, his Essays on Hygrometry; works which we examined with great care, particularly the Essays, as they occasioned a dispute between him and M. de Luc, in which the professor had evi-

dently the advantage, though the hygrometer had not reached its expected perfection from his hands.

In 1786, Sauſſure reſigned his profeſſorſhip to Pictet, ſince advantageouſly known by a Treatiſe on Fire, and ſome valuable Memoirs in the Journal de Phyſique. We ſuſpect, that the office was reſigned in diſguſt, on the rejection of his improved plan of education, which certainly deſerved attention, if, to this, the merits of his ſons and his daughter are to be attributed. The daughter, madame Necker, added to the uſual accompliſhments of her ſex an extenſive knowledge of philoſophy and natural hiſtory; and the eldeſt ſon has already diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a chemiſt and philoſopher.

The ſecond volume of his Travels appeared in 1786, and was particularly intereſting from the ſcenes deſcribed, and the various philoſophical experiments related in it. He founded the Society of Arts, which augmented the induſtry and ſharpened the ingenuity of the artiſts of Geneva, before celebrated through Europe, for the variety of their works, and the neatneſs of their workmanſhip. On the revolution in that city, he became a member of the council of 200; and to his exertions in this aſſembly, a paralytic ſtroke, which he experienced at the age of 54, is to be attributed. The powers of his mind, however, continued unimpaired. He prepared for the preſs the two laſt volumes of his Travels, and publiſhed them in 1796; and he communicated to the Journal de Phyſique ſome obſervations on the fuſibility of ſtones by the blow-pipe, and ſome propoſed experiments for aſcertaining the height of the bed of the Arve.

He repaired to the baths of Plombieres for the recovery of his health, and hoped to be able to fulfill the duties of the office to which he had been appointed, the profeſſorſhip of experimental philoſophy in the central ſchool of Paris. But his health daily declined; and he ſunk under his diſeaſe about the beginning of the preſent year. He had intended to terminate his literary career by the publication of his ideas reſpecting the primitive ſtate of the earth. This taſk probably exceeded his powers; but we know from his general opinions, that the revolutions would, in his ſyſtem, have reſted on the agency of water, with ſome aſſiſtance from the expanſion of elaſtic fluids.

M. de Sauſſure's third journey was from Geneva to Lake Major; but his route was by no means a direct one. From Geneva he proceeded to Vevay, and thence to the Lake Thun. After croſſing it, and coaſting the northern part of the Lake of Brientz, he proceeded ſouth-eaſt to Meyringen, then in a more ſouthern direction to Mount Grimſel, Obergeſtlen, and Formazza, viſiting the glaciers of Lauteraar and Oberaar, as well as the ſources of the Rhone. From Formazza he re-

paired to Duomo d'Oſſola, whence he proceeded to the Boromean iſlands on the weſt of Lake Major. The north-weſtern extremity of the lake he examined at Locarno. He returned to Formazza to reach the valley of Maggia by a route not yet deſcribed, and returned to Geneva by Mount St. Gothard, Altdorf and Lucerne. The want of a map may in this journey be ſupplied by that which is annexed to Mr. Coxe's Travels.

From the Lake of Geneva to that of Thun, in the Geſſenay and Simmenthal, the mountains are in general ſecondary and calcareous. The ſtrata, when not vertical, have their planes directed from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt. As our author's geological obſervations were not intereſting, he employed himſelf in examining what was called the dry miſt of that year (1783); but he found it connected neither with coldneſs, nor with the moiſture of the atmoſphere.

'After a rapid aſcent, we arrived at a height, where we had a ſufficiently extenſive proſpect of the Valley of Geſſenay It is large, without being quite plain; an amphitheatre of meadows agreeably varied by innumerable houſes, farms, and little unconnected barns. The mountains which ſurround it are divided by valleys, and varied in their forms. Theſe alſo are covered with meadows, mixed with clumps of trees, and ſtudded with farms and with houſes. Above theſe inhabited mountains, we ſaw, in the moſt diſtant cliffs, only ſnow and rocks. It is remarkable, that, in this valley, we found no arable land, though oats, barley, rye, and flax, would ſucceed admirably. Here and there, indeed, near a habitation, we obſerved a ſquare piece of ground ſown with barley or flax, ſeemingly as curioſities, and not as objects of uſeful cultivation. The inhabitants of theſe mountains attend only to the buſineſs of rearing cattle and making cheeſe. In general, wherever lands are much divided, as in theſe mountains, ſcarcely any grain is ſown, becauſe wheat is never advantageouſly cultivated but on a large ſcale. The proprietor of a ſmall domain is better rewarded by meadows, and the cultivation of pulſe.'

The lake of Thun is four or five leagues long, and almoſt a league wide, in its greateſt breadth. Its direction is from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt; its depth is 350 feet, and its temperature 4° — 40° 5 Fahr. Its height is 104 toiſes above the lake of Geneva, and 292 above the ſea. The lake of Brientz is much ſmaller, and its direction nearly at right angles to that of Thun. Its aſpect is more ſavage than that of any other lake in Switzerland; for its high (calcareous) mountains deſcend rapidly to the water. The ſides, however, are verdant, covered with herbage, and ſome-

times with trees. Its depth is 500 feet, and its temperature 3° 8—38° 5. Fahr. The mineral waters of Leenſingen in its neighbourhood are hepatic, with magneſia.

The road from Brientz to Meyringen is through an extenſive valley, flat and a little marſhy, between mountains chiefly calcareous, with horizontal ſtrata. There is, however, one exception in an inſulated mountain about half a league from Brientz. The ſtrata appear at firſt twiſted; and they are ſoon found to be bent in a zig-zag, or in the form of an S doubled, from the top to the bottom. On examination, this form appears to have been produced by a violent ſhock; and theſe ſtrata are ſometimes found broken, where the returns were very rapid. Sometimes they are ſeparated, ſeemingly ſcattered by an exploſion; but they ſoon return, when traced, to their horizontal poſition.

The village of Meyringen is in one of the moſt beautiful and picturesque valleys of Switzerland. Its ſurrounding rocks are varied with wood and verdure, but are occaſionally barren, from a deſcent too rapid. Its caſcades are bold and ſtriking; that of Reichenbach is well known, from the many prints and drawings of it in England. Both in this valley, and in Grindelwald, the calcareous rocks, when they approach the primitive ones, loſe their horizontal poſition, and riſe in angles of 60 and 70 degrees, againſt the latter. On the ſouth and eaſt alſo, the primitive ſtrata of gneiſs reſt in higher angles againſt the calcareous rocks. This our author calls a beautiful example of thoſe ebbs, which he conſiders as the general cauſe of the change in the direction of ſtrata, originally horizontal.

From Guttanen to the Hoſpice of Grimſel, the gneiſs is ſucceeded by granite; and, beyond the heights of Grimſel, foliated granites or gneiſs recur. M. de Sauſſure is perſuaded, that an unprejudiced obſerver would conſider the greater part of theſe granites as ſtratified, and the ſtrata, in general, vertical, or inclined at large angles. The direction of the planes is not however the ſame, though they are commonly acroſs the valley. The ſtrata of the others are probably not obſervable, on account of their thickneſs. The Hoſpice, which more nearly reſembles an eaſtern caravanſera than an hoſpital, is not in the higheſt point, though in a wild ſituation. It is on a plain, on the mountain ſurrounded by the higheſt pics covered with ſnow. Near it, is a lake, whoſe waters, contraſted by the ſnow, appear black. It is called the 'Lake of the Dead;' for all, who die in paſſing the mountain, are thrown into it. Thoſe who are able, pay for their entertainment, which is not bad. The civility and good humour of the hoſts are remarkable.

The glacier of Lauteraar diſappointed our author's expectations. The ice was covered with the debris of the moun-

tain; and clouds concealed the Finſter Aar and Schreckhorn, which over-hang it on the weſt and north-weſt. The rock which riſes on the north is truly magnificent. It is a 'wall of granite, of a prodigious height; its ſurface undated, ſmooth and ſhining, radiated with the different colours of the lichens and confervæ, which the little rills, that glide over its ſurface, ſupport.' The ſtones, which cover the ice, are the debris of the mountains, granites and granitellos of almoſt every variety. The Aar trickles up from the ice, inſtead of emerging, like the Arveiron, from a glaſſy arch.

'The moſt curious objects, in the view of our naturaliſt, were ſtones covered with hair, or ſhining ſilk, projecting in ſtraight lines, of a deep brown. They form a kind of thick velvet, the pile of which, with a ſtrong magnifier, appears tranſparent, of a brown colour; the larger hairs are ſeemingly fluted, or ſtriated, probably from their being compoſed of ſmaller ones; for the ſmalleſt have no ſuch ſtructure: theſe are, at moſt, $\frac{1}{100}$ part of a line in diameter. I have not been able to diſtinguiſh their form, but have obſerved, that each is cut off by a plane, perpendicular to its axis. They have no diſtinguiſhable articulations, but are ſtraight and ſmooth, from one end to the other. With the blow-pipe they melt eaſily, without bubbling, into a dark-brown brilliant enamel, ſtrongly magnetic.'

This foſſile the younger Sauſſure analyſed, and found that it was not an amianthus, but was chiefly compoſed of clay and flint, with about $\frac{1}{5}$ of iron. The pile may perhaps be ferrugineous cryſtal, which we think we have ſeen aſſume this appearance. Our author viſited alſo the grottos of cryſtal, which are in granitic rocks. From theſe grottos, ſome of which are 18 feet ſquare, and others from 60 to 80 feet deep, many thouſand quintals of cryſtal have been taken. In this place they diſtil a ſpecies of *aqua vitæ* from gentian, which is greatly eſteemed as a febrifuge. The whole glacier is ſaid to have been once free from ice, and highly fertile; but this tradition M. de Sauſſure treats with a ſuſpicious incredulity.

Our author's continuance on the Grimſel was marked with an extraordinary circumſtance. On the 11th of July, 1783, a tremendous ſtorm of thunder and lightning threatened to deſolate Geneva with its deſtructive violence. At Grimſel, on the contrary, the night was calm and ſerene; yet, on the weſt, in the neighbourhood of Geneva, there were ſome bands of clouds, in which light lambent flames, which we ſtyle ſummer lightning, ſeemed to vibrate.

In examining this glacier, our traveller aſcended a mountain on the north-eaſt, which is an important ſtation, as it ſhows at one view the two glaciers of the Aar. That of Oberaar is wholly covered with ſnow. The ice is only viſi-

ble on the eaſtern deſcent; and the ſnow has few ſtones upon it. Oberaar means the ſuperior ſource of the Aar; and it is evidently the higher ground. The ſpot on which M. de Sauſſure ſtood, was 1256 toiſes above the level of the ſea. The real pics of theſe high mountains were, from this ſtation, clearly ſeen to be terminated by pics with ſharp angles, and by bold and well diſcriminated forms. Theſe, however, are connected with the direction of the ſtrata, and the hardneſs of the ſtone; for even calcareous mountains preſent the ſame pointed bold terminations, when the ſtone is very hard, and the ſtrata are vertical; and granitic mountains in a lower ſituation, and with inclined ſtrata, have rounded heads. The ſtone of theſe mountains is a foliated granite. The chain, on the ſouth, is ſchiſtus, in a ſtate of decompoſition.

The rocks, near the ſource of the Rhone, are of very different kinds, and the river ſometimes runs parallel to them, and ſometimes croſſes them; ſo that thoſe who conſider only the courſe of the river, and are attracted by its caſcades, think the inclination of the different ſtrata irregular. Our author examined them with the compaſs in his hand, and found, as uſual, their direction from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt.

'This glacier (as it is called) of the Rhone, if not the moſt magnificent, is the moſt beautiful in our regions. From the height of a mountain, crowned by over-hanging rocks, the ſheet of ice deſcends, ſtuck with pyramids, varied by their ſize and their forms. It is then contracted to paſs within two rocks; after which it expands like a fan, and forms an immenſe ſegment of a ſphere, from the ſummit of which, as from a centre, deep cracks of a fine blue ſeparate and terminate in the circumference. At the baſe of this ſegment, two arches of ice appear, whence two impetuous torrents ruſh, which, after uniting, carry to the ſource of the Rhone the firſt tribute which it receives.

'In reality, theſe two torrents, though ruſhing from a higher ground, and carrying twenty times the quantity of water, are not ſtyled the *ſource* of the Rhone. The inhabitants, with a kind of contempt, call them the waters of the glacier, or of the ſnow; while they ſhow with a ſort of veneration, and honour, as the ſource of the river, a fountain which riſes from the middle of a beautiful meadow. Many travellers laugh at this preference; and the good Scheutzer turns it into ridicule, calling it a kind of madneſs, *αρρωστια της διανοιας*, in the inhabitants of the valleys, to give the appellation of the ſource of the river to a little ſtream which joins a vaſt current from above.

'I was aſtoniſhed at this ſingularity, and endeavoured to conjecture the cauſe of it, when, taſting and feeling the water, I found a ſenſible heat in it. I conſidered this as a kind of il-

fusion, when, on plunging the thermometer into it, the column rose to 14. 5.* while all the neighbouring water was scarcely above the freezing point, except one little spring, which enjoys also the honour of being deemed the source of the Rhone.'

The cause of the veneration entertained for this spring is obvious: it resists the cold of winter, and the meadow in which it rises is in perpetual verdure. This cause influences the opinion respecting the source of other rivers.

The name of the Rhone is derived, in our author's opinion, from red; the source itself being styled Der Rothe, from the red sediment deposited from it. The height of this warm spring is 900 toises above the Mediterranean. The water is slightly impregnated with a vitriolic neutral salt, without any mixture of an earthy salt, and with a very slight tinge of hepatic vapour. Hence M. de Saussure is inclined to believe, that the heat is occasioned by decomposed pyrites. We long since endeavoured to show that this was probably the source of the heat of all warm springs. The fountains of the Rhone contain the *conferva rivularis,* while the snow waters are barren.

From the source of the Rhone to Formazza, the journey furnishes nothing very interesting to a general reader. The elevation of the Col de Gries is 1223 toises above the level of the sea, and the temperature was at 6½ (47° Fahrenheit). The glacier did not greatly differ from the other icy regions. It represented the agitated waves, fixed by cold; and, in some parts, the smoother ice gave the appearance of harbours. Beyond these regions, some fertile detached spots offered the pleasing prospect of a milder climate; and, not far from the Val de Toccia, the larches began to show the influence of a more genial sun. The cascade of the Toccia is very beautiful, its height is from 5 to 600 feet, and the first fall is into a concave rock, resembling an immense shell. It then falls on a convex one, by which it is divided into numerous smaller jets which glide down the remaining height. From this cascade, the veined granites of Italy begin.

From Formazza, M. de Saussure proceeded to Duomo d'Ossola, and to the Boromean Islands. In his way he examined the various granites; and he endeavours to explain their exfoliation by their hardening when they are exposed to the air, while the lower part retains the softness which it possessed when in the earth. The weight above consequently produces a separation. We know that granites harden by exposure to air; but, from frequent observation in granitic countries, we think the explanation not supported by facts; for the exfoliations are often of thin laminæ, not connected with superior weight. It is probable, that granite, while in

* 65 degrees of Fahrenheit—Mr. Coxe by mistake says 55 degrees.

its ſofter ſtate, admits moiſture, which expands by cold, and thus ſeparates parts of different bulks.

'Independently of the intereſt with which theſe ſtrata are ſurveyed by the geologiſt, in conſequence of relations which it would be uſeleſs to detail in this place, they offer to the painter a ſuperb ſcene. I have never ſeen more beautiful rocks, diſtributed in larger maſſes: in one place they are white; in another, blackened by lichens; in another, variouſly coloured, like the rocks of Grimſel, and mixed with trees, ſome of which crown the top of the mountain; others are unequally thrown on the cornices which ſeparate the ſtrata. Near the baſe of the mountain, the eye repoſes on fine plantations, in meadows of a varied ſurface, and on magnificent cheſnut-trees, whoſe extenſive branches ſhade the rocks againſt which they grow. In general, theſe granites, whoſe ſtrata are horizontal, render the country delightful; for, though in ſome places the projections are too bold, the layers are generally arranged in ſteps, the borders of which are covered with a charming verdure, and with trees diſpoſed in the moſt pictureſque manner. We may even ſee ſome mountains in the form of a ſugar-loaf, ſurrounded and crowned, even to their ſummit, with garlands of trees, thus placed by intervals, on the ſtrata.'

At St. Roche the climate of Italy more deciſively begins; vines appear; the horizontal granites vaniſh, and micaceous ſchiſtus takes its place. About half a league from the bridge which terminates the Val de Formazza, is the gold mine of Credo, which is not very productive. The gold ſeems chiefly to be contained in a ferrugineous ochre.

Near Duomo d'Oſſola, the deſcent from the height of the Alps is conſiderable; for this town is thirty-ſix toiſes below the level of Geneva. On coming from it, vertical ſtrata of foliated primitive rocks occur, which cut the valley obliquely, and correſpond with thoſe of a high mountain, ſituated on the oppoſite ſide; 'a proof that ſtrata become vertical, which were once horizontal.'

In the lake of Mergozzo the Boromean Iſlands are ſituated; and on the banks of this lake is the town of Mergozzo. No river paſſes through it; but the Toccia runs on the ſouth to fall into lake Major, having high ground and ſometimes conſiderable mountains between it and the former lake. Both, however, are united by a canal. It is remarkable that the mountains and hills conſiſt of maſſy granites in this lower ſituation, while the neighbouring heights are compoſed of gneiſs or foliated granite; 'a proof,' adds our author, 'that the latter is not compoſed of the debris of the former.' We are not inclined to acquieſce entirely in this concluſion: thoſe who have often obſerved veined granites may form a different

opinion; yet the decifion of M. Sauffure muft be regarded with refpectful attention.

The beauty of Ifola Bella has been much extolled; it is adorned, however, in a ftyle not perfectly adapted to cultivated taftes. ' The rock is divided into ten ftages, fupported by arcades, bordered by beautiful orange-trees, covered with plantations of citrons, flanked by obelifks, and adorned with ftatues.' They are the hanging gardens of Semiramis, or an attempt to realife a fairy fcene. The rock itfelf is primitive, chiefly micaceous, mixed with quartz in different forms.

As, from Formazza, our traveller reached the Val Maggia by a road little known, we will quote his defcription of it:

' It is one of the high valleys of the Alps, whofe fituation I prefer. It does not offer, like that of Chamouni, a magnificent fpectacle of glaciers; but its features are fofter and more paftoral. Its rocks, divided by meadows and groves, have nothing rude or favage. The valley is varied by little hamlets; and the clean white houfes beautifully contraft the verdure which furrounds them; while little rocks, occafionally rifing in irregular fwellings, and covered with larches that have thick foliage, feem to be facred woods, in the midft of which we may imagine an altar or a ftatue *.'

In his new track, M. Sauffure paffed through the Furca del Bofco. The higheft part of it was 1202 toifes; the thermometer was at 10° 6 (56° Fahr.), and the hygrometer at near 90°. The rocks were granitic; and he could here fee the pics of mountains, whofe bafes he had before examined. He thus found that, in proportion to the height, the grains of the granite were more fine and lefs hard, and the ftrata thinner; facts which, in his opinion, as important confequences were deducible from them, compenfated the labour of the journey. The whole track was gloomy and dreary in a high degree.

Though our author's tour is not completed, the termination of the third volume reminds us of the length of our article, and the neceffity of a paufe. Mount St. Gothard is too important an object to be noticed in a curfory manner.

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* ' Thefe groupes of trees, irregularly fown by nature on rocks fcattered in a valley, have not the heavinefs and monotony of thofe *maffy* plantations in the Englifh gardens (clumps), which Mr. Uvedale Price has ridiculed with fo much fpirit and originality in his charming work, ' An Effay on the Picturefque.' We doubt whether M. de Sauffure ever faw the *modern* Englifh plantations. His ideas are taken from thofe which he faw in his vifit many years ago.

Nouveau Tableau speculatif de l'Europe, par le General Dumouriez. Sept. 1798.

A new speculative Picture of Europe. 8vo. 6s. *Sewed.* Imported by De Boffe.

THE nations of Europe again pass in review before the discarded general; and he points out to each the conduct which he thinks ought to be adopted in these critical times. His chief object is to show, that there ought to be a general confederacy against the French, not with a view of destroying their government, or dividing their country amongst the allies, but for the purpose of repressing their inordinate ambition, and preventing the propagation of those principles which tend to the overthrow of every monarchical constitution. It is easy to form a plan in the closet, and to make the parts correspond with each other; but the history of this war suggests a different idea of the effects of great coalitions. The confederates are to act together to effect one single purpose; and, that being attained, they are to withdraw their troops, each contented with the glory acquired, and the common enemy is to be left to profit by the chastisement which he has received. All this is Utopian. Leagues cannot be thus formed, till the nature of man shall be materially altered. Those who draw the sword to repress a foe, will, when he is disarmed, proceed to the usual exercise of power; and, as the fear of such exercise of power inspired the French with that energy by which they defeated the first confederacy against them, the same energy is likely to subsist till their government shall be acknowledged by their neighbours. The real effects of the new system may then be discovered.

The general avows himself a friend to monarchical government in France; but his monarchy is too different from that which has been subverted, to please the emigrants; and he would leave too much power to the monarch for those who have imbibed the new principles. Thus his views of reform cannot be acceptable to a sufficient number to afford him any prospect of success. His reprobation of many measures pursued by the royalists, or the supporters of their cause, will displease the aristocrats; and the violence of his language against the new principles will render him obnoxious to the democrats.

But, if the publication of his sentiments will produce little effect in the present ferment, the reflections of a distinguished general and politician, on public affairs, cannot fail to be frequently interesting. We naturally look in this respect to his remarks on our own country; and his observations on naval expeditions deserve attention.

'The English (he says) seem to commit many faults; and, when their plans of attack depend on a combination of force by sea and land, they are almost always badly formed, or badly executed. We might point out the expeditions to Ostend, Porto Rico, St. Domingo, Teneriffe, and the Moluccas. As the most obvious one, let us examine the first: It is always a proof of want of skill to undertake an inferior with the means of attaining a superior object. General Coote's flotilla was strong enough to attack the isle of Walcheren, and perhaps, with the aid of the Zealanders and the stadtholderian party, to dispossess the French of Flushing. The destruction of the sluices at Ostend was a more dangerous and uncertain undertaking, incapable of producing any advantage as to the issue of the war, and detrimental only to the inhabitants of the country, whose interests should be consulted as much as possible. The vicinity of Dunkirk, if the weather had been more favourable, must have prevented the complete success of this expedition; an expedition odious in itself, and tending to no good end whatever. The check which the English troops received on this occasion was more prejudicial to the reputation of their arms than from the mere loss of men; and the English government seems to have wished to give the directory its revenge for the attack on the isle of St. Marcou.'

We need not be surprised at the success of the French arms in Italy, when we read the following description of the inhabitants of that country, which is traced with a masterly hand.

'Except liberty, the Italians were in possession of every enjoyment. The people were divided into three classes—that of the nobles, who were idlers, and who wearied themselves with frivolous pleasures, with luxurious and wretched splendor, with formality and titles—that of the bourgeois or citizens, who were servilely employed in the mechanic arts, and who humbled themselves before nobles whom they secretly ridiculed and despised—that of the farmers, who alone were elevated almost to the rank of freemen, although they were exposed by their rude simplicity to the derision and contempt of the bourgeois, and were also objects of the tyranny of the nobles, of whom they avenged themselves by tardy payments, and by keeping for themselves the better part of their produce. As soon as a bourgeois by industry and commerce, or a farmer by labour or the ruin of his landlord, had acquired a competence, the first object of each was to quit his class; and purchasing a patent of nobility from the petty sovereigns of Italy, he from that instant thought himself entitled to the privilege of idleness.

'With ſuch characters, with ſuch habitual indolence, the revolutionary ſpirit could not originate in Italy: every idea of the majeſty of the people was totally effaced or deſtroyed by the ſtrange diviſion of ſmall ſovereignties; but no country was better adapted for the propagation of this opinion, becauſe in no other part had the people formerly poſſeſſed greater dignity or majeſty. It was only neceſſary to rouſe them from their long ſlumber, and to recall to their view their ancient ſtate.

'Till the French revolution had made its way over the Alps, the Italians, little accuſtomed to the peruſal of the public papers, in general partial and unfaithful, and never meeting in political ſocieties, becauſe they were prohibited by the government, looked upon the French as ſo many madmen, whom their imperial and royal majeſties would ſoon annihilate. The reſerve and apathy of the Italians gained freſh ſtrength: accuſtomed to enjoyments and to ſlavery, they kept themſelves upon their guard againſt the epidemical diſorder which might trouble their repoſe.

'But when they ſaw the king of Pruſſia compelled to make peace with the French republic, the landgrave of Heſſe, then Saxony and Suabia, ſeparating from the German league, Spain giving up the revenge of the head of its houſe, and the intereſts of that unfortunate branch, to unite with France againſt England, the defender of the Alps brought under the yoke of the conqueror, Holland ſubdued and revolutioniſed, the Auſtrians driven out of the Milaneſe with facility—when they ſaw all theſe triumphs accumulate on a nation, of which before they had an indifferent opinion—the reflecting character of the Italians neceſſarily led them to attribute to the cauſe of liberty that exalted energy which renders the nation inflamed by it invincible. From this reflection to the riſe of popular ambition there was merely a ſingle ſtep.'

In this manner the general conſiders every nation; and his concluſion is a prediction of war, the iſſue of which is uncertain, and not to be eſtimated by the accuſtomed rules of policy and reaſoning. On the beginning of the war his remarks are certainly well founded.

'The war (he ſays) which many of the powers of Europe undertook againſt France, at the beginning of the revolution, was unjuſt, imprudent, impolitic. If the arms of the coaleſced powers had ſucceeded, and the unfortunate Louis XVI. had reaſcended the throne, he would for the rebellion of his ſubjects have been puniſhed by his allies, who had determined on the partition of his frontiers. In that horrid war every thing was badly eſtimated, even the particular intereſt of each power. Philoſophy, juſtice, humanity, then offered their vows for the French nation. If it had fallen, liberty would

have been banished from the face of the earth: despotism would not have permitted the liberty even of thought to exist.'

The success of the French brought with it its usual attendant, a despotism as dangerous as that which they were resisting; and against this despotism a war of extermination, according to this writer, must be universally proclaimed.

'It necessarily follows (he says), from the concatenation of circumstances, that the fate of Europe depends more than ever on the chances of war, which will accelerate the arrangement settled by the unknown decrees of providence, confounding the wise, and electrifying the weak or the mad, for the production of unexpected results, which, though conformable to general order, will to feeble mortals be ever incomprehensible.'

The last prediction is countenanced by the present state of affairs; and if the nations of Europe learn to submit to the decrees of providence, the general may be esteemed a good preacher.

Emilie et Alphonse, ou Danger de se livrer a ses premières Impressions. Par l'Auteur d'Adele de Senange. Hambourg. 1799.

Emilia and Alphonso, or the Danger of yielding to first Impressions. By the Author of Adele de Senange. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

IN the first volumes of this tale there is little to excite curiosity. Emilia is constrained by a fond but ill-judging mother to marry a man whom she dislikes, and who consequently renders her unhappy. The distress of Emilia, the refuge which she seeks in fashionable gaiety, and the snares from which she escapes unpolluted, but not unsuspected, though well narrated, feebly interest the reader. But the story of Alphonso displays superior power, and agitates even to pain.

Alphonso is the son of a Spanish duke. His uncle, by marrying a woman of inferior rank, had displeased his family; and Alphonso had been taught to despise him as a man disgraced. After a long residence in France, the uncle returns to Madrid: Alphonso visits him, and condescends to behave with cold civility; but he sees Camilla, and his prejudice against his uncle yields to love for his cousin. His heart and hand are pledged, when the duke commands him to marry a lady of the name of Eleonora. He endeavours to excite disgust in the latter: distant, chilling, even rude, he displeases

her by his behaviour; and he overhears her saying to a friend that she never could be happy with him. 'My soul,' said she, 'feels the necessity of loving, and of being loved. If he had not manifested so great an estrangement, I might perhaps have ventured to speak to him; but he forbids it. My father too refuses to hear me; he treats mutual affection as a chimera, and the feelings of the heart as follies; and assures me that there is not a word of all this in the contract.'

'In entering the saloon, I found Eleonora endeavouring to snatch from her friend a seal which had been taken from her. I interfered in the innocent dispute, and seized the stone, on which I found this motto—*happiness or death.* Eleonora, looking downward, said, that it often required more courage to attain happiness than to die. "Yes," I replied; "but often with a slight effort we conquer fortune." We looked earnestly at each other; and, by an inspiration of love, I confessed to her that I had overheard her in the garden. "Let us be sincere," I cried; "perhaps we may surmount the obstacles which surround us." Eleonora blushed, and then grew pale: she could not persuade herself that I had overheard her. "What," said I—"have you not said that you never could be happy with me?" She sighed. I led her with her friend to a distant room. There I entreated her to open her heart to me; but, far from finding there a feeling which could excuse me, I discovered a prepossession in my favour which astonished me, and which perhaps she did not know herself; a sweetness which softened me. She told me ingenuously that my coldness and melancholy had persuaded her that I should marry her against my inclination: "then," she added, and looked downward, "then I said, that I never could be happy." This confession, so opposite to what I expected, confounded me; we were both long silent; at length I asked her if she would be my friend; she consented with a sorrowful look. Does then the most ingenuous woman divine that the lover who pronounces the name of friend is about to pierce her heart? I took her hand, and that of her companion; and, after making them swear to keep my secret faithfully, I confessed every thing to them, but without naming Camilla, or saying any thing that might point her out. I felt myself affected, when, in describing my love for Camilla, I saw Eleonora troubled, and observed her stifling her respiration, lest I should hear her sigh. Ah! he who really feels love can never be pleased with inspiring a passion of which he does not partake.'

Camilla, a woman of strong and ungoverned feelings, becomes jealous of Eleonora. She proposes a private marriage to Alphonso, and they are united.

'In becoming the husband of Camilla, I had attained the summit of what lately seemed my most ardent desires; and yet I was oppressed by an unconquerable melancholy. What will you say of my feeble heart, when you hear that I was haunted with the recollection of Eleonora? I saw her sweet affliction I know not what enchanting sentiment attracted me towards her; but it is certain that her grief affected me more than my own satisfaction. I found myself between Camilla, who had first made me feel love, who had developed in me all my passions, and Eleonora, who with a look calmed the tumult that her rival had excited.

'I went to this tender friend; I fell at her feet; and, hiding my face upon her hands, "Eleonora," I cried, "do not abandon me! never was your friendship so necessary. In pity, in generosity, suffer me to be with you! If you do not guide me, I shall become the curse of Camilla, your curse, my own, the curse of all connected with me. I am married." "Married!" said Eleonora, raising her eyes to heaven!—"Yes—yes—married, without the consent of my father, even without having attempted to obtain it." She wept upon me, but did not thrust me from her. I was still on my knees by her, when her father and mine entered the room. I rose instantly. —"Remain where you are," cried my father laughingly; "beautiful Eleonora, I place myself by him; deign to consent to enter a family which devotes itself to your happiness." Eleonora, with a goodness which still penetrates my heart, replied, that she would never marry, and that she had just informed me of that intention. Her father would not hear her; he threatened her with his anger, with his hatred, if she did not immediately retract. I exclaimed that she was deceiving them; that it was I who would not be obedient. "You! you!" they both cried. "Why then at her feet?" continued the count: "at least you shall answer to me for that strange conduct." She threw herself between us; she fell at her father's knees; and, holding out her hands in supplication, conjured him to let her live with him as she had always done. —"No—the man who held your hands in his, whom I have surprised at your feet, shall be your husband: if he should refuse, his life or mine must answer." "You decide me," Eleonora gravely answered: "wait only till to-morrow, without inquiring into the scene that has recently passed." "To-morrow!" said her father.—"To-morrow," repeated mine. "To-morrow," she replied, with a solemnity that terrified me. She added, "I also venture to beg that you will leave me alone with Alphonso." They hesitated some time, but concluded by quitting us. As soon as they had retired, I again fell at the feet of Eleonora: all that she was suffering on my account distracted me. "To-morrow," I said to her,

"I will fly from Madrid; and my abſence will reſtore your tranquillity."—"No: my father would only ſee in your flight an injury which he would revenge. I have no courage for your danger or for his; give me time to recollect myſelf." She remained ſome moments with her eyes raiſed to heaven. When I attempted to ſpeak, ſhe laid her hand upon my lips: at laſt ſhe ſaid to me with a candour, an affection truly heavenly, "I love you with all my ſoul, Alphonſo! I tell you ſo for the firſt and the laſt time; but it is neceſſary that you ſhould know it." Her tears almoſt ſuffocated her; and I was perhaps more oppreſſed than ſhe was. I wiſhed to die, I wiſhed that I had never exiſted. After a painful effort, Eleonora added, with deep ſobs, "I was to have been your wife, and I believed myſelf the happieſt woman upon earth. Fortune, greatneſs, virtues, nothing ſeemed too brilliant for my hopes.—I loſe all, all in one day; and I regret only the loſs of you. You owe me ſome conſolation; promiſe me then to grant what I ſhall aſk."—"Speak! command me!"—"To-morrow you ſhall have tidings of me." This myſtery, this delay, made me tremble; I had often thought of putting an end to my torments by depriving myſelf of life, and I feared that Eleonora would attempt hers. She quieted me on this head, but without removing the anxiety with which I was haraſſed. With what ardour did I entreat her to inform me of her reſolutions! She always anſwered that they depended upon a laſt attempt with her father, without letting me penetrate her projects or her hopes. Till now the greateſt reſerve had accompanied all her actions; nor did innocence and modeſty now forſake her; but, when it was neceſſary to ſeparate, as though irreſiſtibly impelled, ſhe threw herſelf into my arms, and cried—"Tell me you love Camilla! tell me ſo, I entreat you, tell me ſo!"—I preſſed her to my heart; ſhe reſted on it a moment—but, recovering her ſtrength, burſt from me.'

The next day the following letter is received by Alphonſo, with a caſket of jewels.

'O, my dear Alphonſo, receive the firſt words which I have dared to write to you—you who were to be ſo dear to me! Perſuade Camilla to accept the diamonds, which my father gave me to ornament my perſon on the day when you ſhould have led me to the altar. When you ſee her adorned with them, remember what Eleonora was to have been to you. How often has my heart palpitated at repeating ſecretly the vow which I was to pronounce! From the time when firſt our marriage was reſolved on, my mother, and my friends and attendants, ceaſed not to praiſe you, and to talk of my happineſs. My heart too eaſily received theſe deceitful impreſſions: I loved you before I knew you: judge whether

I have since been able to change that sentiment! Excuse me—pity me, without reproaching yourself for the vows that will soon bind me; it is my father who has driven me to them. Be you then, O my only friend, free from remorse. I thank you for having regarded me, for esteeming me, for trusting to my word, to my love, for being kind to me when you owed me nothing. When you receive this, veils and grates will separate us FOR EVER. Render not useless the sacrifice which I make to your tranquillity: I demand it of you on my knees. Respect your own happiness; it is mine;—it is the only happiness which remains for me in this world. Obey me only once; and, when your father learns my retreat, shew a surprise which may blind his ambition, and restore your peace. Preserve, cherish my memory; and never let the world know for whom I have wished to live or to die! ELEONORA.'

The conclusion of the story is, as may be imagined, dreadful. Alphonso, to discover Eleonora's retreat, leaves and neglects Camilla; and he returns to her only in time to find her dying in child-bed. His future fate is connected with that of Emilia and her husband; but the rest of the work is tame and unimportant, when compared with Alphonso's narrative.

Catholic poets have usually prefaced their works with a proviso that the miracles which they have employed are only poetical fictions. In like manner, the author of this novel informs us, that he has only given titles to his personages, in conformity to the costume of the period in which they are supposed to have lived.

Der Wunderbare, von Karl Rechlin. Lübeck.

The Wonderful Stranger, by Charles Rechlin. Small 8vo. 5s. *Sewed.* Imported by Escher.

THIS romance is the production of a young man, who died soon after the completion of it. The scene and the characters are Italian; and the substance of the tale is comprised in the following statement.

The work opens with the account of a festive entertainment, given at the villa of a young nobleman, named Marino, chiefly in honour of Bianca, the fair object of his attachment. This lady attends on the occasion, but does not fully partake of the mirth of the scene, as the protracted absence of her betrothed lover Hieronymo from Italy is a cause of serious alarm. In the course of the evening she meets with an old harper, who had drawn a number of persons around him: his mournful strains give her a melancholy plea-

fure; but when he refufes, at the defire of Marino, to favour the company with a lively tune, the count draws his fword, with a feeming intention of doing him an injury: the weapon, however, breaks at the inftant, and the old man makes his retreat. The fame perfon afterwards appears in a wood, and delivers to Bianca a ring, which fhe had dropped from a gondola into the fea. Other wonders follow—particularly the fudden difplay of fome writing in a garden, addreffed to the lady, and the quick difappearance of it. She is defired to re-write her laft letter to Hieronymo, at whofe filence fhe is uneafy, and then to burn it; and an anfwer within a limited time is promifed to her. A voice warns her, on another occafion, to avoid the fociety of Marino, as his aim is to deceive her. Addreffing the fuppofed fpirit, fhe inquires whether her lover is ftill in exiftence; and the anfwer imports, that he lives, and is ftill attached to Bianca; an intimation which gives her unfpeakable joy. In a journey which fhe foon after undertakes, fhe meets with the prince of G——, who accompanies her in her fubfequent progrefs. This prince proves the greateft enemy to her lover, whom he eagerly endeavours to fupplant: he even bribes affaffins to murder him; but he fails in his fchemes, and fuffers for his treachery. Hieronymo fuddenly makes his appearance, and ftabs him in the prefence of Bianca. Marino, who had affifted in preferving the life of his rival, defifts from his vain purfuit, and is fully reconciled to him; and Hieronymo becomes happy in the confirmed poffeffion of Bianca.

This romance is not unpleafing, and the language is fmooth and neat; but the incidents are not very interefting; nor do we think that the plot is well conducted.

OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT

OF

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

FRANCE.

MANY works of conſiderable merit, and many trifling and ſuperficial productions, have lately appeared in France, though few have found their way into this kingdom. In taking a curſory notice of ſome of theſe publications, we will begin with thoſe which are of a ſcientific nature; and ſuch as belong to different claſſes of polite literature will form a regular ſequel.

Cours Elémentaire de Chymie, &c. Elementary Courſe of theoretic and practical Chemiſtry, according to the new Nomenclature, by Alyon, 2 vols. 8vo. Paris.—The author of this work is a phyſician and chemiſt of conſiderable reputation; and, though it is principally intended for the peruſal of young ſtudents, it contains information which the more experienced reader will find intereſting and uſeful.

Des Sciences poſitives, &c. A View of poſitive or preciſe Sciences, and the Means of applying them to Induſtry, 8vo. —M. Canolle, in this treatiſe, evinces a reflecting mind.

Leçons Elémentaires, &c. Elementary Leſſons in Arithmetic and Algebra, by P. Tedenat, 8vo. Rhodez.—There is little novelty in this performance; but it is clear, preciſe, and methodical.

Hiſtoire Naturelle des Singes, &c. Natural Hiſtory of Animals of the Ape Kind, by J. B. Audebert.—Only ſome parts of this work have yet been publiſhed: thoſe are well executed, and the graphic accompaniments exhibit correct repreſentations of the animals.

Flora Atlantica, &c. A Deſcription of the Plants which grow on Mount Atlas, and in the Algerine and Tuniſine Territories.—M. Des-Fontaines, in 1783, undertook a voyage to

Africa with botanical views. He soon found an opportunity of penetrating to a considerable distance south of Tunis, and met with many new species of plants, which he has accurately described in this work. He augmented his stores of plants in subsequent journeys, extending his rambles to the frontiers of Morocco. Various circumstances long retarded the publication of his Flora; but the cultivators of botany are now gratified with the first volume, the execution of which does credit to the author.

Histoire des Plantes vénéneuses et suspectes de la France, &c. History of those French Plants which are known to be poisonous, or are suspected of being so, by M. Bulliard.—This is the second edition of a work highly useful in the prevention or the remedy of injury from plants.

Paradoxes, &c. Curious and interesting Paradoxes in the Œconomy of Nature.—Among other points, the writer endeavours to prove, that, when a person dies, a fermentation of matter takes place; that the different kinds successively ascend; that thus even the intelligent faculty is conveyed into the mass of æther; and that the only difference between this state of existence and the former is the change of our mediate sensations into such as are immediate.

Philosophie du Chaud et du Froid. The Philosophy of Heat and Cold, by Peter Bellelingue. Besançon.—A confused and unphilosophical performance.

Essai sur les Fièvres, &c. Essay on Intermittent Fevers, and on the Use and Operation of febrifuge Medicines, particularly the Peruvian Bark, by Bouffey, 8vo.—This essay has obtained the favourable opinion of those who are good judges of the subject. The remarks are judicious: the nature and character of intermittents are well explained; and the use of the bark is subjected to very proper regulations.

Elémens de Myologie, &c. Elements of Myology and Syndesmology, by T. Lauth, 2 vols. 8vo.—This physician has well described the muscles and the ligaments; and his information will be found useful in the cure of the disorders by which those parts of our frame are affected.

De l'Influence, &c. A Dissertation on the Influence of the Passions in Disorders, and the Means of obviating their ill Effects.—This work proceeds from the pen of Tissot; and it may be consulted with advantage not only by medical students, but by general readers.—Another new work of the same physician may here be mentioned. It relates to the diet most proper for indisposed or diseased persons; and the regulations which it contains are well-founded and judicious.

Plan d'un Cours, &c. Plan of a Course of practical Medicine for Diseases most prevalent among Soldiers, by N. P.

Gilbert, 8vo.—A pamphlet more diſtinguiſhed by affected claſſification than by great merit.

Etudes de l'Homme, &c. Studies of phyſical and moral Man, conſidered in his different Ages, 8vo.—An ingenious and pleaſing work, by Perreau.

Précis de l'Hiſtoire des Hébreux, &c. A Summary of the Hiſtory of the Hebrews, from the Time of Moſes to the Reduction of Jeruſalem by the Romans, 12mo.—The author, M. Mentelle, has only given thoſe parts of the Jewiſh hiſtory which he conſiders as true; but many of his readers will probably differ from him in his opinion of the inauthentic nature of particular ſtories or circumſtances related in the Old Teſtament, as a regard for the Bible is not entirely extinct even in France.

Les Annales, &c. The Annals of the French Republic, from the Eſtabliſhment of the Conſtitution of the third Year, 6 vols. 8vo.—The firſt volume contains preliminary articles, tending to give a juſt idea of the ſtate of France at the time from which the annals commence. In the ſecond, not only military details are given, but accounts of the works of art and the productions of ſcience and literature. The third volume comprehends political diſcuſſions, copies of treaties of peace and alliance, accounts of national feſtivals, public inſtitutions, &c. In the fourth are military pieces; in the fifth and ſixth, various literary intelligence, and *memoranda* reſpecting commerce, œconomics, &c. may be found.—The work is a collection of materials rather than a regular hiſtory.

Phraſeologia Anglo-Germanica, &c. Anglo-German Phraſeology; or, a Collection of more than Fifty Thouſand Phraſes, collected from the beſt Engliſh Claſſics, diſpoſed in alphabetical Order, and faithfully tranſlated into German, by Profeſſor Hauſſner, 8vo. Straſbourg.—If at this time the German theatre is in high vogue in our metropolis, the compliment is returned to us on the continent; and the Germans are indefatigable ſtudents in our language. To aſſiſt them in our phraſeology, the compiler of this work, with great labour, has ſelected a variety of phraſes from our beſt authors; and it is a very good dictionary for Germans.

Vies des Enfans célébres, &c. Lives of diſtinguiſhed Children, 2 vols. 12mo.—A publication very proper for the young, as it points out models for their imitation.

Tableau de Liſbonne in 1796, &c. A Deſcription of Liſbon in the Year 1796; followed by Letters written from Portugal on the ancient and modern State of that Kingdom, 8vo.—The writer has entered into copious details reſpecting the Portugueſe capital and nation; but his ſtrictures on man-

ners, cuſtoms, arts, government, &c. though frequently juſt, are too ſtrongly marked with paſſion and prejudice.

Tableau de Cayenne, &c. A View of French Guiana.—We are informed, that the author of this work reſided many months in that country; and his ſtatements are conſidered as worthy of credit.

Œuvres d'Horace, &c. The Works of Horaçe, tranſlated into French verſe by Peter Daru, 2 vols. 8vo.—The difficulty of tranſlating Horace into any modern language is generally acknowledged: we therefore need not be ſurpriſed that M. Daru's verſion gives, in numerous inſtances, an inadequate repreſentation of the original.

Poëſies, &c. Philoſophical and deſcriptive Poems, by Authors of the eighteenth Century, 3 vols. 8vo.—Voltaire, Marmontel, Delille, Thomas, and Chamfort, are among the writers whoſe works have furniſhed the editor of theſe volumes with pleaſing materials.

Lettres, &c. Original Letters from Rouſſeau to Madame de Luxembourg and other Perſons.—Theſe epiſtles were reſcued from oblivion by Pougens; and, as they are deemed genuine, they will be read with pleaſure by the admirers of the ingenious though eccentric philoſopher.

Le Poëte, &c. The Poet, or Memoirs of a Man of Letters, written by himſelf, 4 vols. 12mo.—Theſe volumes ſeem to contain ſome facts; but the greater part may be conſidered as the produce of invention. Upon the whole, the work is lively and entertaining.

Juliette et Dalmor, &c. Juliet and Dalmor, or the Lovers of the Cevennes, 2 vols.—A novel in which a pleaſing ſimplicity prevails.

Sophie de Beaurégard:—A novel in the epiſtolary form, tracing the progreſs and effects of true love.

Les Orphelines, &c. The Orphans of Flower-Garden, 4 vols. 12mo.—It is ſome merit in a French novel, that it contains nothing immoral; and we can diſcover no other merit in this work.

HOLLAND.

De Apokryfe Boeken, &c. The Apocryphal Books, from the Greek, vol. I. Amſterdam, 1798.—Profeſſor van Hamelſveld has accurately tranſlated and illuſtrated the books in queſtion.

Alterum Tentamen Anacreonteum, &c. A ſecond Anacreontic Attempt, by Hœufft. Dordrecht. A French critic, ſpeaking of this publication, ſays, 'Anacreon had become Callimachus under the elegant pen of M. Hœufft: but he is now himſelf again.' Rejecting the metre which he had before

chosen, M. Hœufft has now given to the poems of Anacreon a version strictly corresponding in that respect with the original.

GERMANY.

Allgemeines Journal, &c. A Journal for all the Branches of Chemistry, 8vo. Leipzig, 1798.—This is a new periodical work, of which the editor is Dr. Scherer.

Versuch einer Mineralogischen Beschreibung, &c. An Attempt to exhibit an accurate Mineralogical Description of Landeck and its Environs, by Leopold de Buch, 4to. Breslau, 1797.—M. de Buch is a distinguished pupil of Werner; and his merit as a mineralogist is evinced by this publication.

Tabula Sceleti, &c. A view of a Female Skeleton, with a Description, by S. T. Sömmering. Frankfort.—This writer, being of opinion that no former representation gave a just idea of the skeleton of a woman, resolved to remedy the defect by superior accuracy of observation. He procured the body of a young and beautiful woman of Mentz, and, with the assistance of a mathematician, painter, and sculptor, produced a correct delineation of the skeleton.

Pinacothéque, &c. A Collection of Tables of general Utility for Multiplying and Dividing, 8vo. Berlin.—These useful tables are the work of Gruson.

Uber den nächsten Zweck der Erziehung, &c. On the most essential Object of Education, according to the Principles of Kant, 8vo. Ratisbon.—Just remarks on education, drawn from the nature of the mind, are here given by professor Weiller, of Munich.

Vollständiger Lehrbegriff der Schwimmkunst, &c. A complete System of the Art of Swimming, translated from the Italian of Bernardi, and illustrated with Remarks, by Professor Kries, 2 vols. 8vo. Weimar.—This is a curious work, the produce of attentive consideration and long experience. The system is founded on an opinion contrary to that which has generally prevailed on this subject; for the specific gravity of the human body, according to Dr. Bernardi, is not greater than that of water.

Kritisches Griechisch Deutsches Handworterbuch. A Critical Greek and German Dictionary, Vol. I. 8vo. Leipzig.—Professor Schneider is the compiler of this work, which is executed with the accuracy that might have been expected from such a philologist.

Selbstmord, &c. Suicide examined in its medical and moral Causes, with Rules for the Conduct of hypochondriac and melancholy Persons, by J. V. Muller. Franckfort.—This is not a work of great novelty or merit.

Psychologia Homerica, &c. An Inquiry into the Opinions of Homer concerning the Soul. Zullichau.—There is some merit in this dissertation, of which Halbkart (a pupil of Wolff, the editor of Homer) is the author.

Antidote au Congrès de Rastadt, &c. An Antidote to the Congress of Rastadt, or Plan for a new Political Balance of Europe. 1798.—The author of this performance first gives a sketch of the French revolution, which he represents as an evil of such an extraordinary and portentous nature, that, if it should not be crushed by external force, it will overturn every thing in its progress. He afterwards details his plan, which involves a new coalition of the chief powers of Europe, founded on such a basis as would impart concord and unity to their deliberations, vigour to their measures, and activity to their exertions. By such a confederacy, there might be a chance, he thinks, of preserving the civilised world from the revolutionary *furor*.—He writes with spirit; but some of his ideas are extravagant; and he is not always consistent with himself.

SWITZERLAND.

Méthode Analytique des Fossiles, &c. Analysis of Fossils, by Professor Struve. Lausanne, 1797.—The author's scheme is principally founded on the exterior characters of fossils; and it therefore resembles that of Werner.

Mannichfaltigkeiten, &c. Various Pieces by Frederic Charles, Baron de Moser, 2 vols. 8vo. Zurich, 1796.—Many amusing anecdotes may be found in these volumes; and various instruction may also be gleaned from them.

SPAIN.

Elementos, &c. Elements of Chemistry, 3 vols. 4to. Madrid, 1798.—This work is a translation from the French of Chaptal.

Tratado instructivo, &c. An instructive practical Treatise on the Art of Dyeing: a performance of some merit.

Obras de Sapho, &c. The Works of Sappho, Alcæus, Simonides, and other Greek writers, of whose compositions there are few remains, translated into Spanish verse by J. and B. Canga Arguelles, 8vo. 1797.—Some of these pieces are well translated.

Historia de Sancho, &c. History of Sancho Panza from the Time of Don Quixote's Death, 2 vols.—It is perhaps unnecessary to observe, that this romance is greatly inferior to the celebrated work of Cervantes.

RUSSIA.

Lucumon, oder Nachrichten, &c. Lucumon, or Accounts of extraordinary Men in phyſical and moral Reſpects, with a View of the Wonders of Nature and Art in the Hiſtory of Countries and Nations, calculated for Inſtruction and Entertainment. Riga.—This is a good collection of entertaining anecdotes, deſcriptions, &c. by which young people may be gradually led to higher inquiries. We are inclined to form a favorable opinion of the neighbourhood of Riga, when we obſerve ſo good an arrangement purſued in objects which, though they may ſeem trifling to many, are in reality of conſiderable importance. In England, extraordinary attention is now paid to the minds of children; and the Germans and ſome other nations, with reaſon, purſue the ſame plan, in providing proper books for childhood as well as manhood.

A REVIEW

OF

PUBLIC AFFAIRS,

FROM

the Beginning of JANUARY to the End of APRIL, 1799.

GREAT-BRITAIN.

WITH regard to the probable accomplifhment of the grand and comprehenfive views of Great-Britain and her allies for the deliverance of Europe, and indeed of the whole civilifed world, from the encroachments of Gallic democracy, the opinions of political obfervers will greatly differ. Many will apprehend, and many will be inclined to wifh, that the influence of the new modes of thinking, both in religion and politics, may fo weaken the efficacy of the old fyftems, as to aid the progrefs of the French arms; that, even where the troops of the *great nation* may never penetrate, its example may promote democratic revolutions; and that all the exertions of the confederates will be weak and nugatory, in a caufe fo repugnant to the feelings and fentiments of the generality of mankind. Others, on the contrary, will flatter themfelves with the profpect of a general reftoration of peace and order, confequent on the efforts of the coalition—efforts which the republican banditti of France, to whofe criminal views the eyes of the world are now opened, will in vain attempt to counteract or op-

pose. We, who have repeatedly professed our attachment to a limited monarchy, cannot but be desirous of the maintenance of our constitution; and it is therefore our earnest wish that the enemy may receive such effectual checks as may produce humility and moderation, and promote a due sense of the blessings of peace and tranquillity.

While the British sovereign, intent on the scheme of European deliverance, endeavoured to augment his strength by new alliances, the parliament of his realm continued to deliberate on the means of defraying the expences of the war, and on other purposes of national expediency. The bill for the general taxation of income was sanctioned by the house of peers on the 8th of January, after a spirited debate, in which the duke of Bedford and lord Holland opposed the measure, while it was supported by the chancellor and lord Auckland.

The act not being fully intelligible to the generality of the people, various difficulties arose in the adjustment of the returns which should be made to the commissioners; and many of those who understood its clauses were slow in complying with the terms. By a new act, a later day was allowed for the returns; but not a few delayed the delivery of their statements beyond even the added time.

A great object of ministerial consideration at this time was the union with Ireland. Mr. Pitt was zealous for the scheme; and, as he had found so few difficulties or obstacles in his political career, he did not perhaps foresee the opposition with which his plan would be assailed. The parliamentary investigation of it was preceded by a message from the king, who desired the two houses to 'consider of the most effectual means of counter-acting and finally defeating the design,' in which the enemy persevered, 'of effecting the separation of Ireland from this kingdom,' and recommended 'such complete and final adjustment as might best tend to improve and perpetuate a connexion' essential to the security of both realms, and to 'augment and consolidate the strength, power, and resources, of the British empire.' When an address on this subject was proposed in the house of commons, Mr. Sheridan condemned the cheme of incorporation, and moved, though without ef-

fect, that the king ſhould be requeſted not to liſten to the counſel of thoſe who would promote ſuch a meaſure at the preſent criſis.

The plan of union was at length communicated to the commons, in a ſpeech which excited the admiration of many, and fixed the attention of all. On the 31ſt of January, Mr. Pitt entered into a diſcuſſion of the ſubject, ſtated the principles by which he was guided, and developed the means which he deemed the moſt applicable to the formation of a beneficial and permanent union. As we have given a ſketch of the leading features of this harangue in the critical department of our journal *, we ſhall, in this place, only intimate the ſubſtance of the eight propoſitions moved on this occaſion. The three firſt related, in general terms, to the formation of one kingdom, and the continuance of the preſent ſettlement of the crown: the fourth imported that the united kingdom ſhould be repreſented in the ſame parliament, a certain number of members being choſen to vote on the part of Ireland: the fifth reſpected the preſervation of the doctrine, worſhip, diſcipline, and government, of the churches of England and Ireland, in the ſtate in which they now ſubſiſt: the ſixth allowed to the ſubjects of Ireland an equality of commercial privileges with thoſe of Great-Britain: the ſeventh left to each kingdom the ſeparate payment of the intereſt of the public debt; and the laſt tended to perpetuate the laws now in force, and the exiſting courts of judicature, with the permiſſion, however, of ſuch alterations as the combined legiſlature ſhould occaſionally deem expedient.—Mr. Sheridan endeavoured to refute the arguments by which the miniſter had ſtrengthened his propoſitions; and contended, that the union, at this criſis, would be injurious to Ireland, and that, if it ſhould be forced upon the inhabitants of that country, it would rather promote than baffle the views of the French. Dr. Laurence was alſo of opinion, that the meaſure was unſeaſonable, and that it would therefore be prudent to poſtpone the conſideration of it till the Iriſh ſhould be more generally willing to acquieſce in it. But, as only 15 members voted

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* See the 453d page of our preſent volume.

against the motion for referring the propositions to a committee, while 140 appeared in favour of it, the discussion was allowed to proceed. On the 7th of February, two resolutions were moved by Mr. Sheridan: one was founded on the necessity of procuring the '*manifest, fair*, and *free* consent and approbation of the parliaments of the two countries;' the other tended to stigmatise, as 'an enemy to his majesty and to the constitution of his country,' every one who should endeavour to obtain the appearance of such consent and approbation, by employing the influence of government for the purpose of corruption or of intimidation. These motions were rejected after a short debate; and a long discussion followed. Mr. St.-John did not consider the scheme of union as necessary or expedient for the safety or the prosperity of Ireland. Mr. Grey wished for an union of hearts, affections, and interests; but he apprehended that the present measure would be productive of disunion, as discontent, distrust, and suspicion, were already the fruits of the proposition in Ireland. That evils existed in that kingdom, none, he said, would deny: but no good reasoner would infer, because they were visible under a separate legislature, that they had arisen from that circumstance, or that an incorporation with Great-Britain was the best or the only remedy for them. The chief authors of these evils were well known. Vain hopes had been raised among the Irish; alarms had been excited, discontent created, and animosities fostered; and the mischief produced by this unjustifiable conduct was used as a pretence for annihilating the liberty and independence of Ireland.— Mr. Dundas, not without ability, defended the proposed union, and expatiated on the advantages with which the like measure had been attended in Scotland. Mr. Windham imputed the disorders of the Hibernian realm to the nature of its constitution, the barbarous ignorance of the people, and the propagation of French principles. The prescription which appeared to him to promise the greatest remedial efficacy, was a melioration of the state of the lower classes; and this improvement, he thought, could only be effected by an infusion of British capital and British manners. An incorporation, he added, would best produce this effect. When other speakers had offered various remarks, a divi-

ſion took place, with a great majority in favour of the court.

This intereſting ſubject was again debated on the 11th of February; and Mr. Sheridan then appeared as an advocate for the emancipation of the catholics; but his motion to that effect did not meet with approbation. General Fitzpatrick, referring to the ſettlement with Ireland in 1782, affirmed that the preſent ſcheme was ſo far inconſiſtent with the agreement which had then been adjuſted, as to deſerve the ſtigma of breach of faith. Mr. Ryder denied that the agreement in queſtion was intended to be final, or that it could juſtly preclude the adoption of any part of the new plan; and Mr. Pitt followed him on the ſame ground. Indeed, on a fair conſideration of this point, we cannot concur with Mr. Fitzpatrick, as there is no breach of faith in propoſing to a parliament which is left independent by one compact, a free inveſtigation of the merits of a new convention, which may terminate in the unconſtrained exchange of a ſeparate legiſlature for the advantages of an incorporative union with another kingdom.

In the renewal of diſcuſſion, the probable benefits of the union were eloquently enforced by Mr. Addington, the ſpeaker of the houſe. Mr. Hobhouſe ſtrongly oppoſed the meaſure, as he thought that it would be more pernicious than advantageous to Ireland, and that the introduction of Hibernian members into the general parliament would extend to an alarming height the influence of the crown. Mr. Peele compared the two countries to two commercial houſes, the one opulent and reſpectable, the other deſtitute both of capital and credit; and he ridiculed the folly and obſtinacy which the latter would evince, in refuſing to accept from the rich houſe the offer of a liberal participation of the profits of the trade. The lords Temple and Morpeth were ſtrenuous in behalf of the union; and the ſolicitor-general repreſented it as neceſſary for the correction of the vices of the Iriſh government, and the removal of the evils which haraſſed the country.

The reſolutions being adopted, a conference on the ſubject enſued between the commons and the peers; and, on the 19th of March, lord Grenville entered fully into the

queſtion, and concluded an elaborate harangue with recommending an union as the only meaſure which could ſecure Ireland from the graſp of France. Earl Fitzwilliam ventured to differ widely from the miniſterial party; but the marquis of Lanſdowne was an approver of moſt of the reſolutions. The earl of Moira was friendly to any union which might be founded on ſuch wiſe and liberal principles as might gain the cheerful aſſent of the Iriſh nation; but the plan now in contemplation did not appear to him to be one of that deſcription. Lord Mulgrave, however, conſidered it as a judicious and promiſing ſcheme; and the earls of Carliſle and Weſtmorland ſignified their warm approbation of it. The peers concurring in the votes of the other houſe, an addreſs was prepared, ſupported by the biſhop of Llandaff and other ſpeakers, and preſented to the king, intimating the reſolutions to which both aſſemblies had agreed. In this ſtate the affair now reſts. The wiſhes of the Britiſh parliament are fully manifeſted; and it remains for the Iriſh to examine with temper the nature of the offers made to them, and not ſuffer pride or animoſity to obſtruct their political proſperity or general welfare.

While the union was in agitation, a ſecret committee of the commons proſecuted an inquiry into the nature and extent of the Hibernian conſpiracy, the particular connexions of the united Iriſhmen with the mal-contents of Great-Britain, and the progreſſive views of the various ſocieties inſtituted on pretence of reform. The report of this committee was completed in March: it is perſpicuous and circumſtantial, and will ſerve to guard the well-affected againſt ſeditious and treaſonable aſſociations.

When it was taken into conſideration in a committee of the whole houſe, on the 19th of April, the miniſter expreſſed his conviction of the neceſſity of impoſing additional reſtraints upon Jacobiniſm; and he not only propoſed that the ſuſpenſion of the *habeas-corpus* act ſhould be continued, but that a bill ſhould be introduced for the more effectual ſuppreſſion of unlawful ſocieties, and the puniſhment of thoſe perſons who ſhould be guilty of ſeditious practices.

Our limits will not allow us to dwell on the other parliamentary proceedings of this period. We will, therefore,

ſummarily mention, that Mr. Wilberforce again moved, in vain, for the abolition of the ſlave trade; that bills were brought forward for the grant of 12,000l. *per annum*, out of the conſolidated fund, reſpectively, to the princes Edward and Erneſt (now dukes of Kent and Cumberland), and for enabling his majeſty to make a regular proviſion for the princeſs Amelia out of his hereditary revenue; and that Mr. Dundas, in opening the budget for India, repreſented our ſettlements in that part of the globe as being in a proſperous ſtate, though the debts of the company had increaſed.

Adverting to the negotiatory concerns of Great-Britain, we may obſerve, that Mr. Thomas Grenville, brother of the ſecretary of ſtate, was ſent to the continent for the promotion of an Anti-Gallican confederacy. In his paſſage he was in great danger of periſhing amidſt the ice at the mouth of the Elbe; the ſhip in which he ſailed was wrecked, and ſome lives were loſt; but he had the good fortune to eſcape. When he arrived at Berlin, he ſtrenuouſly endeavoured to draw the king of Pruſſia into an alliance with Great-Britain; but he found his exhortations fruitleſs, in conſequence of the ſuperior influence of Sieyes.

IRELAND.

Tranquillity is not yet reſtored to this country, which, for its defence againſt mal-contents, depredators, and aſſaſſins, is ſtill ſubjected, in a great meaſure, to military government. The diſorders and inſecurity of the realm ſerved to ſtimulate the eagerneſs of the friends of the union; and, when the parliament re-aſſembled, on the 22d of January, the lord-lieutenant urged the two houſes to pay particular attention to the means of improving the connexion between the realms. To the addreſs propoſed in the upper houſe, an amendment was offered by lord Powerſcourt, tending to call in queſtion the competency of the aſſembly to agree to a ſcheme of incorporation: but this ſuggeſtion was diſcountenanced; and the addreſs was voted by a majority of 32. In the houſe of commons, the debate was remarkably long

and animated: but we cannot enter into a detail of it. Sir John Parnell conjured the house not to pledge itself to the support of a meaſure which, there was reaſon to think, would be highly injurious. Mr. George Ponſonby expoſed the illiberality by which the conduct of Great-Britain towards Ireland had long been marked; and he warmly deprecated the meanneſs and folly of ſurrendering the independence of the realm to an oppreſſive neighbour, and riſquing thoſe advantages which an Iriſh government could of itſelf preſerve and improve. Many ſtrong ſpeeches followed; and the addreſs was ſanctioned by a majority of only two voices. The inhabitants of Dublin were ſo pleaſed with this reſult, which was conſidered as a virtual rejection of the meaſure, that the evening exhibited a general illumination in that city. On the report of the addreſs, ſir Laurence Parſons moved for the omiſſion of that part which related to an union; and, after a freſh diſplay of ſpirited eloquence, the adverſaries of the court prevailed by a difference of ſix votes. Some miniſterial changes teſtified the diſpleaſure of the court at the oppoſition to the ſcheme; but the advocates for the independence of Ireland were not diſcouraged. On the 15th of February it was moved, that the houſe ſhould aſſert the 'competency of an independent legiſlature to all wants and regulations, political and civil,' and ſhould declare its continuance 'eſſential to the welfare and happineſs of Ireland, and to her connexion with Great-Britain.' Though, on this occaſion, the court had a majority of 20, it was deemed adviſeable to ſuſpend the ſcheme.

The budget was ſoon after opened by Mr. Corry, who had ſucceeded ſir John Parnell as chancellor of the exchequer. Supplies, exceeding, nearly by a million, thoſe of the year 1798, were readily voted; and new taxes were found expedient.

A bill for the more effectual ſuppreſſion of the rebellion was oppoſed by ſeveral members, as too violent and deſpotic: but it was vindicated as neceſſary to prevent a relapſe of the United Iriſhmen into inſurrections; and it at length paſſed into a law.

Many of the rebels, to whom tranſportation was promiſed

as an indulgence, in lieu of capital punishment, have been sent to the West-Indies, and others to different quarters. Their accomplices who remain in Ireland are turbulently active in some of the counties of Connaught, and in other parts of the kingdom; but they are not in a state of *organised insurrection*.

FRANCE.

The transactions of the French, and the events which concern them, have not been unimportant during the last four months. Their legislative proceedings have not, indeed, been interesting; but their martial operations have engrossed the attention of Europe.

The mal-contents of Belgium continuing to resist the troops of the directory, the latter received an augmentation in the beginning of the year. Fresh engagements ensued; and the forces of the government generally had the advantage; but there are still some remains of commotion.

While the French suffered their ministers at Rastadt to keep up the farce of negotiation, they prepared for a rupture with the emperor of Germany, whom, from his encouragement of the views of the court of Petersburg, and from other parts of his conduct, they considered as an enemy. They repeatedly remonstrated, in strong terms, against the approach of the Russian troops; but the northern army continued its march. In the mean time, the fortress of Ehrenbreitstein, after a very long blockade, fell under the power of the republicans, who thus gained possession of one of the keys of Germany.

The emperor not complying with the demand respecting the Russians, the French, on the 1st of March, issued a proclamation, intimating the necessity of taking precautions against the designs of their enemies, and yet professing a desire of maintaining peace. On the same day, general Jourdan crossed the Rhine; and his troops soon commenced their favourite operation of pillage. While he marched towards Ulm, Massena, with another army, advanced into

the country of the Grifons. On the 5th, he furprifed fome fmall pofts; and, the next day, he attacked the Auftrians at Coire, compelling the baron d'Auffenburg and about 3000 men to furrender themfelves prifoners of war. The poft of Feldkirch being juftly deemed an important obftacle to his views of co-operating with Jourdan, feveral fierce attacks were made upon it; but fo obftinately did the Auftrians refift, that his men were repelled with great flaughter. He foon became mafter, however, of the three divifions of the Grifon ftate; and the Engadine and the county of Bormio were invaded with fuccefs by a part of the army of Italy.

When hoftilities had been thus renewed, war was declared in form by the directory. In a meffage delivered to the legiflative bodies, it was affirmed, that the emperor had not only mifunderftood the principle of the treaty of Campo-Formio, but neglected the execution of one of its chief articles; and that he had always been difinclined to peace. The cold reception of Bernadotte, the grofs affront offered to that ambaffador, the hypocrify of the court of Vienna in the negotiation of Seltz, the deputation of an ambaffador to Berlin and Peterfburg, the reluctance to the admiffion of an envoy from the Cis-Alpine republic, the encouragement of the Ruffians in their march through Germany, and other inftances of a difpofition inimical to the French, were ftated on this occafion as ample juftifications of a recourfe to arms.

The renewal of the war in Germany called the archduke Charles again into action; and his early operations in the prefent campaign did not diminifh his former reputation. On the 21ft of March, he ordered an attack to be made upon the army of Jourdan. The French centre was driven back with fome lofs, chiefly by the efforts of the Auftrian cavalry. On the 25th, Jourdan, in the hope of regaining his former pofition, engaged the archduke near Stockach. He endeavoured to gain the defile of Ach, and gained fome advantage in the earlier part of the conflict, the divifion of the count de Meerfeld being too weak to withftand him. The battle foon became more general;

and both parties signalised their courage. The prince de Furstenberg fell on the occasion; the prince of Anhalt-Bernburg was mortally wounded; and other gallant officers were sacrificed. The prince of Anhalt-Cothen particularly distinguished himself by his exertions. Where his *corps* acted, the choicest troops of the enemy were engaged, sometimes repelling their opponents, and at other times merely keeping them in check. At a critical time, some battalions attacked the French in the rear, and captured one half of a brigade; and the centre at length gave way. At the village of Walwis, the engagement was vigorous and obstinate, till night parted the combatants. The action was renewed in the morning, to the disadvantage of the French, who retreated towards Neustadt. In these two days, about 7000 men are supposed to have been killed or wounded in both armies. During these operations general Staray was employed in driving the enemy out of the duchy of Wirtemberg; and the greater part of the French army hastily repassed the Rhine. This fortunate beginning of the campaign gave high confidence to the Austrians; and the archduke prepared with alacrity for the prosecution of his success, while Jourdan returned to Paris in disgust.

The Austrians now advanced towards Schaffhausen; and the archduke sent a detachment to dislodge the French from that town. Several attacks were necessary for the execution of this order; but, on the 13th of April, count Nauendorf succeeded in the attempt. The entrenchments near Constance were also assaulted with success; and that city was fiercely cannonaded; a service in which an officer of the name of Williams, with a flotilla of gun-boats on the neighbouring lake, boldly joined. During the remainder of the month, the operations in this part of the theatre of war were less important, as the indisposition of the imperial general occasioned an interval of inaction.

The French, in the mean time, maintained their ground in Egypt, defending themselves with spirit against the occasional attacks of the natives. When they deemed themselves sufficiently secure in that country, a part of the army was sent into Syria, where some success attended the in-

vaders. During this expedition, the *savans* who had left their country, to *civilise* the Egyptians amidst the din of arms, held academical meetings at Grand Cairo, and discussed various topics of science and civil œconomy.

Near the close of April a considerable fleet sailed from the harbour of Brest, destined for some enterprise of importance. It was at first supposed that the armament was intended for the invasion of Ireland; but this opinion soon gave way to other conjectures. It is said, that some of our cruisers have descried this fleet near the coast of Portugal. Where-ever it may be found, we have little doubt of the success of our fleet in an eventual engagement.

The late elections for the two councils have been attended with tumults in some of the departments. The anarchists have prevailed in some places; and many individuals who are known to be hostile to the directory, and even some persons who for that reason were rejected in the last year by the arbitrary pentarchs, have been chosen by the people.

GERMANY.

The farce at Rastadt is now at an end. The congress has been dissolved; and the fate of the empire depends on the violent decision of arms, not on the mildness of negotiation.

Before the plenipotentiaries desisted from their conferences, the French, from a desire of exciting odium against the emperor for his selfish ambition and his inattention to the interests of the Germanic body, and also of augmenting the jealousy entertained of the views of that prince by the court of Berlin, published a state paper, which they styled the 'secret articles and additional convention of the treaty of Campo-Formio.' It appears from this paper, which has the air of authenticity, that his imperial majesty was to be assisted by the influence of the French in the acquisition of the archbishopric of Saltzburg, and other territories; that, besides consenting to the cession of the left

bank of the Rhine, he acquiesced in the intended encroachments of the French, by promising the evacuation of Mentz, Manheim, and other considerable towns and fortresses; and that the king of Prussia was to gain no accession of dominion.

After the renewal of the continental war, the count de Metternich protested against the continuance of the deliberations of the congress; and, declaring that all the proceedings from its commencement were null, retired from Rastadt. Some of the remaining plenipotentiaries wished to proceed with the treaty; but the majority considered the congress as virtually, though not formally, dissolved; and preparations were made for departure. It was intimated to the French ministers, on the 28th of April, that their persons would be safe, but that they must retire within twenty-four hours. They had scarcely quitted the town, when a party of hussars approached, and attacked them with sanguinary violence. Bonnier and Roberjot were barbarously murdered by these ruffians; but Jean De-Bry escaped with life, though not without many wounds. Every man of honour must reprobate such inhumanity; but, in some of the prostitute prints of the times, the zealots of war and assassination have even attempted to justify the act!

The resentment of the French displayed itself in menaces of vengeance, when the report of the outrage reached Paris. A funeral *fête* was ordered in the different departments; and various measures were proposed in the two councils, to render the infamy of the assassins universally notorious.

The war will, in all probability, occasion very considerable changes in the state of Germany; but, whether those changes will be advantageous or detrimental to the head of the empire, we cannot clearly foresee. This prince seems to be particularly desirous of the acquisition of Bavaria; but his views will be checked by the connexions between the French and the duke of Deux Ponts, who has lately succeeded to the dignity of elector of the Palatinate and of Bavaria, on the decease of Charles Theodore, and has manifested a strong animosity against the imperial potentate. Whether

the French or their enemies prevail, the power of the new elector, we may ſuppoſe, will not remain undiminiſhed. His pretended friends may democratiſe his dominions, or his imperial neighbour may add them to the Auſtrian poſſeſſions.

SWITZERLAND.

The unfortunate inhabitants of this country feel all the miſeries of Gallic tyranny. In the injurious treatment to which they are expoſed, deſpotiſm, rapacity, and cruelty, are united: they are enſlaved, plundered, and oppreſſed in various modes. Martial law has been introduced into the cantons; and the people have been required, on pain of inſtant death, to take arms in ſupport of their tyrants. Some bold ſpirits have attempted to ſhake off this yoke; but all inſurrections have been ſpeedily quelled.

The French cannot repoſe much confidence in the ſervice of thoſe whom they have compelled to join their army; and, if the Auſtrians ſhould penetrate into the interior of Switzerland, they will be hailed as friends by the majority of the inhabitants, who, thus aſſiſted, may be enabled to expel their oppreſſors.

As the hope of exciting a general inſurrection in Switzerland had induced the archduke Charles to approach that country, he thought proper to prepare the way for the favorable reception of his army by aſſuring the Swiſs of the moderation of his views. Before his illneſs checked his advance, he iſſued a proclamation, accuſing the French of having unjuſtly re-commenced hoſtilities, and of having calumniated his imperial majeſty by an imputation of the ambitious purpoſe of diſmembering Switzerland; declaring in ſtrong terms his friendly diſpoſition towards the cantons, and his deſire of reſtoring them to that independence and thoſe privileges of which they had been deprived by Gallic uſurpation; and promiſing, in return for the co-operation of the inhabitants, a dereliction of thoſe meaſures

of pecuniary sequestration and commercial prohibition which the conduct of the Helvetic directory had constrained the court of Vienna to adopt. That the Swiss may recover their independence, is the general wish; but the power of the French may long obstruct such an event.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

The chief sway, at the court of Madrid, appears to be exercised by the queen, who favors the partisans of the French republic, though she does not enter with vigor into the war against the English. Her profligacy is severely stigmatised by those who call themselves Anti-Jacobins; but, if it were much more glaring than it is, these men would readily pronounce her a virtuous princess, on her accession to the grand confederacy. They can see only through the mists of prejudice and party: equity and liberality have no influence over their minds.

In Portugal some British troops are yet stationed, for the defence of the kingdom against the dreaded invasion: but they are not sufficiently numerous to promise an effectual resistance; and no confident hopes are entertained of the vigorous co-operation of the Portuguese army.

ITALY.

The French invasion of the Neapolitan realm soon became successful. The republicans pressed onward with zeal and rapidity; and the weak and effeminate Italians were unable to withstand the torrent. The king and general Mack, driven from the Roman territory, hastened back to the south-east with their defeated and diminished forces; and the latter undertook the defence of Capua, which had been invested by Championet: but he did not sustain a long siege; for he agreed, on the 10th of January, to the surrender of

the town, the payment of ten millions of livres, and other terms dictated by the besiegers.

The city of Naples was, at this time, in a state of great confusion. Many of the inhabitants began to be riotous and turbulent: they accused Mack of misconduct and treachery, and refused to acquiesce in an armistice which he had concluded with the French. The lazaroni rose in a body, and committed many outrages and barbarities, the supposed partisans of the French being the chief objects of their fury. Being reinforced by some parties of militia, as well as by the peasants from the neighbouring villages, they marched towards Capua to meet the invaders; and an obstinate battle ensued with a part of the republican army. The French columns repeatedly gave way; and they would perhaps have been totally defeated, if Championet had not arrived with succours. The Italians were now repulsed in their turn; and, after their return to the capital, new scenes of disorder appeared. The French approaching to take possession of the city, the lazaroni and their associates furiously opposed their entrance, and defended different posts with great valor and pertinacity. At length, on the 23d, after a horrible effusion of blood, Championet entered the town; and his success was followed by a course of depredation and tyranny.

Before the reduction of Naples, the king and queen, sensible of their danger, had accepted the protection of the fleet commanded by lord Nelson, and, after a tempestuous voyage, had safely arrived in Sicily. Ferdinand was received at Palermo with loyal acclamations of joy; and the island continues subject to his sway. His misfortunes would excite more general compassion, if he did not bear them with apathy and indifference.

The disturbers of the peace of Italy have at length thought proper to democratise the aristocratic republic of Lucca, a state governed with prudence and moderation. The gates of the chief town were forced, the public buildings pillaged, and the inhabitants exposed to severe exactions.

The Tuscan state has also undergone a revolution. War

was declared againſt the grand duke in March by the French directory, on pretence of his perfidy towards the republic, and his favourable inclinations towards the Engliſh. On the 24th, the town and harbour of Leghorn were ſubjected to Gallic dominion: and, on the following day, Florence was ſeiſed by the enemy. Thus diſpoſſeſſed by a force which he could not withſtand, the grand duke retired with his family, and directed his courſe to Vienna. So frequent are the ſubverſions of old governments in theſe revolutionary times, that the fate of Tuſcany made little impreſſion on the public mind.

In the northern parts of Italy, the French have been leſs ſucceſsful. On the 26th of March, they attacked the Auſtrians near Legnago, but met with ſuch a ſpirited reſiſtance, that they were obliged to retreat after a conſiderable loſs of men. Other poſts were aſſaulted on the ſame day, with no ſmall loſs on both ſides. Four days afterwards, the republicans advanced with an intention of ſurpriſing and ſtorming Verona; but their aims were baffled by the vigilance of lieutenant-general Kray, who, with little difficulty, routed their army. On the 5th of April, he attacked them in the morning near Magnan; and the action was maintained with great firmneſs till night. In this engagement, about 2000 Auſtrians, according to the official accounts of the court of Vienna, were killed or wounded; while the French, who were totally defeated, are ſuppoſed to have ſuſtained a much greater loſs.

In the Tirol, the French were alſo unfortunate. The count de Bellegarde engaged them near Tauffers, that he might prevent them from eſtabliſhing themſelves in that quarter. His left wing ſeiſed a hill which commanded their right flank; but they maintained their chief poſition for ſome time, and haraſſed the aſſailants with a very briſk fire; and his right was reſiſted with ſtill greater vigor. When the conflict became general, the courage and reſolution of both parties ſeemed equally balanced. At length, by the aid of the commanding eminence, the imperialiſts gained the advantage, and drove their adverſaries beyond Tauffers. The action was ſtill continued; and the French

were forced to abandon various posts which they had successively occupied.

These defeats seemed to confound the republicans, who precipitately fled in different directions, while many of their stragglers were made prisoners by the Austrian detachments. Peschiera was invested by a part of the victorious army; and Mantua was subjected to a blockade. The people in this neighbourhood, it is said, gave evident marks of attachment to their former government, and of hatred to the French intruders.

The arrival of a Russian army in Italy promised additional success to the cause of the confederates. Field-Marshal Suwarrow, or Souwaroff, distinguished by his *exploits* in Poland, was placed by the emperor Paul at the head of those troops which had been selected in the north for the restoration of social order to the continent of Europe; and, when he reached the scene of action in Italy, he prepared to improve those advantages which had been gained by the valor of the Austrians. A considerable number of the latter having joined his army, he advanced into the Milanese territory with about 45,000 men. He found the posts near the Adda well fortified; but, not being one of those generals who are easily discouraged, he ordered the army, on the 27th of April, to force the passage of the river. One division crossed near Brivio, by means of a flying bridge; and the rest passed over in defiance of all obstacles.

The battle which followed was gallantly contested. The French, near Pozzo, had at first the advantage, and were on the point of turning the right wing of the combined host; but their views were frustrated by the opportune efforts of a party which assailed them on the left flank, and routed that part of their force. From other posts they were dislodged about the same time; and, at Bertero in particular, a division under general Serrurier was obliged to submit to captivity. It is affirmed, that about 6000 of the French fell on this occasion, and that above 5000 were made prisoners. On the 30th, the field-marshal took possession of Milan, while the vanquished fled in extreme disorder.

The severe checks to which the French arms have thus

been expofed, may perhaps have a good effect in promoting a pacification, unlefs the victorious allies fhould be fo elate with occafional fuccefs, as to neglect an opportunity of terminating the war with honor.

TURKEY.

The boafted *vigor* of the Porte has not been fignally difplayed fince the late declaration of war. The Turkifh forces, however, have not been wholly inactive, though they have not expelled Buonaparte and his army from Egypt, or performed any important fervice, except that of co-operating with the Ruffians in the re-capture of Corfu. A fmall ifland in the harbour of that town was attacked on the 1ft of March; and, after a brifk cannonade from the fhips of war, the troops made a defcent, and foon reduced the ifland. The outworks of the town were alfo affaulted with fuccefs; and, the next morning, the garrifon capitulated, on condition of being conveyed to Toulon, with a provifo that, for one year and a half, none of the men fhould bear arms againft the Turks, Ruffians, Englifh, or Neapolitans The Leander, which had been taken by the French in its way from Egypt, was found in the harbour.

Sir Sidney Smith has been fent to Conftantinople by his Britannic majefty, to fuper-intend the maritime affairs of the Turkifh government. An officer of his talents and experience may prove a very ufeful adviser, if the Turks fhould prove docile and tractable; and, though they would rather learn naval or military tactics from a perfon of their own perfuafion than from one whom they deem an infidel, they will probably, in the prefent danger of their empire, endeavour to improve under any refpectable individual, who may be qualified for the tafk of inftruction.

RUSSIA.

The zeal of the northern emperor for the profecution of the war has obtained great applaufe from the friends of the

met with encouragement from the nizam, who permitted them to muſter an army of his ſubjects, and inſtruct them in military manœuvres. The earl of Mornington, jealous of the views of the ſtrangers, ſent a conſiderable force into the Dekan. The French were diſarmed, and led to Calcutta; and the nizam was obliged to ſign a treaty, by which he was bound to prohibit natives of France from ſerving in his army, or reſiding at his court; ſo powerful is the Britiſh influence in India!

The ſultan Tippoo, not having relinquiſhed the hope of attacking the Engliſh with ſucceſs, has renewed his intrigues among the native princes, with a view of procuring their aſſiſtance. But it appears, that they are unwilling to endanger themſelves by embarking in his ſchemes, or to riſque the vengeance of the Britiſh rulers of India, who, aware of his turbulent diſpoſition, maintain a reſpectable army, and provide for the defence of the country with vigilance and ſpirit.

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